The Nation.

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The Week.

The Civil Service Commissioners are at it again, sticking their noses into other people's business. It is true, Francis E. Baker, United States Circuit Judge for Indiana, violated one of the Federal laws he was sworn to enforce by making postal clerks pay 5 per cent. of their salary to the Republican campaign fund of 1902; but when he has enforced so many laws, can't he break one now and then just by way of aiding the glorious Republican party? Folks may think that there was something mean and contemptible in making a poor postal clerk borrow money to pay over his $30 or $50, but Judge Baker and George W. Plunkitt see the thing in a different light. They know it is far better that every least clerk should go into debt than that their respective parties should be defeated, and they are naturally not willing to let a little thing like the law stand in their way. As if their action were not mean enough in itself, the Civil Service Commissioners go out of their way to cast a slur on the judge and a very worthy law by saying that the statute of limitations is the "only defence which can be opposed to the charge"! Well, why should it not be? Isn't it on the statute-books? Haven't Congressman Lucius Littauer, the New York canal ring, and a host of other lights, including at least one insurance president, got out of trouble by resorting to it in time of need?

The report of H. H. Schwartz, special agent of the Government Land Office sent to investigate entries on the Shoshone forest reserve in Idaho, should be published and distributed as 'The Land Grafter's Hand-Book.' It covers an even one hundred claims in one township; and its brief paragraphs, ending always with the refrain, "has never lived on the land," show the wide range of infection from the land-grabbing fever that has raged throughout the West. At the head of Mr. Schwartz's list marked "Exhibit A" is this brief statement: "J. P. O'Brien, claiming land in section 19, is the general manager of the O. R. & N. Co., and resides and has his headquarters at Portland, Ore. He has never lived on the land." At the head of the list marked "Exhibit B"—including thirty members of the "Slate Creek Settlers' Association"—is the name of James Boaz, claiming land in section 17, who is a saloonkeeper of Wallace, Idaho. He "has never resided on the claim." A milliner, a dentist, an ex-mayor, a "train butcher," a carpenter, a cigarmaker, a policeman, a dance-hall proprietor, a lawyer, a railway conductor, a millman, a miner, and so on, to the end of the list—apparently no one was free from the danger. How did these one hundred claimants attempt to fulfil the residence and improvements requirements of the law? Mr. Schwartz's report says of the Slate Creek Settlers: "There is a small log-house or cabin on each of the above claims. Most of the cabins were built by William Fisher on a general contract at $25 each. They were never worth $25 in labor and materials. . . . These claimants, with one or two exceptions, all voted in the towns where they lived and not in the precinct where the land is situated, and not in the precinct where they should have voted if they had given their residences as that of the land claimed by them." The report is an eloquent comment on the solicitude of Senator Heyburn for those Idaho pioneers who are "hewing homes out of the wilderness," and who are being robbed by the "forest reserve cranks" at Washington.

Anybody could have foreseen that the demand for an 18,000-ton battleship would speedily be followed by the cry that we must have one of 19,000 tons lest the nation be subjugated by the Philistines. We confess to a little surprise, however, at finding that the demand for the 20,000-ton vessel has already begun. It has been started by Commander Bradley A. Fiske in an article in the *Proceedings of the Naval Institute*, to which he gives the humorous title, "Compromiseless Ships." He is satisfied that in a 20,000-ton war vessel no compromise between armor, guns, and machinery would be necessary. His ideal battleship will have "sufficient speed, sufficient armament, and sufficient power to whip any ship of any probable enemy." So it might, for about one year, or until England and France had launched vessels of a similar type or of 21,000 tons. This game will not stop because Commander Fiske is satisfied with his 20,000-ton vessel. Admiral Dewey is already insisting on an 18,000-ton boat because England and France *would* go our last creations of 16,000 tons one better. If we did not know Commander Fiske's excellent reputation as a scientific officer, we should be tempted to regard his paper as a charming bit of sarcasm, particularly as he plans for a speed of only eighteen knots. Yet one of the reasons why our two new battleships, the *Mississippi* and *Idaho*, are declared obsolete before they are finished, is that their speed is only seventeen knots, and they cannot keep up with their consorts.

Not content with his slap at the big-navy boomers by his praise of our coast defences, Secretary Taft proposes to take sharp issue with his chief in the matter of army promotions—if Washington dispatches are to be trusted. The President, it will be remembered, wishes to have officers advanced not by seniority as at present, but by selecting for advancement the brightest men and the hardest workers in their grades. His public declarations to this effect have done a good deal to unsettle the army, and have brought about a very warm discussion which has revealed the opposition of a great majority of the army officers. They are convinced that no method of selecting can be devised which will not sooner or later be improperly influenced by politics, nepotism, or social entanglements. Secretary Taft appears now to have come to their point of view, and to lean to the plan, long advocated in these columns, of weeding out the drones and the unworthy by severer discipline and by difficult examinations for promotion. Not selection, but elimination, is what the army needs. Time has shown that Assistant-Secretary Roosevelt was all wrong in his efforts to remedy the naval engineering situation; it is to be hoped that he will in this case defer to the judgment of his Secretary of War.

After all, it seems that American fishermen do care whether or not Newfoundland furnishes them bait. It will be recalled that, over a year ago, Senator Lodge, in discussing a possible retaliatory measure against us for our failure to ratify the Hay-Bond treaty, asserted stoutly that American fishermen could get all the bait they wanted at Gloucester and Eastport, and keep it on ice. Now, however, when the Gloucester men are actually at Bonne Bay without bait, and when Newfoundland is emphasizing her determination to seize the vessel of any captain who violates the provisions of the "bait law," we see Son-in-law Gardner, the Senator's special envoy in the House of Representatives from Gloucester, posting off to Washington to see what help he can get. It was all very well for Premier Bond to complain that Newfoundland had for fourteen years been giving the United States greater privileges than England herself enjoyed without any reciprocal advantage. Of course, that was but evidence of our tariff wall's skilful construction. When a benefit could flow in unobstructed, and yet meet an air-tight valve when it tried to flow out, the contrivance was admirable. But when the beneficent inflow is checked there is a great row. The "Convention of 1818" is appealed to, and

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Secretary Root is asked to see if something cannot be done. Now is the time for Senator Lodge to start his great bait-refrigerating plant.

Along with the annual bankers' convention, delegates of the country's trust companies and savings banks meet for separate discussions, and the topic which last week at once came up at Washington was the danger involved in the present lax law and supervision governing those institutions. Safeguarding of fiduciary business is expected from New York State as it is not from a score of other States where banking experience and conservatism are less developed. When, therefore, it can be said that trust companies of this State, holding eight hundred million dollars of demand deposits, are allowed by law to invest deposited money in ways by law forbidden to a bank (real estate and stocks, for instance, without restriction), and that no requirement of any cash reserve is made by law, then it is easy to guess what may be the situation in the younger sections of the country. The committee reporting pointed out that in four States—Ohio, Arkansas, Tennessee, and Virginia—there is actually no supervision of trust companies. It is a very grave question how far supervision in many other States is worthy of the name. The president of the trust company convention, while not endorsing the plan of Federal incorporation, declared emphatically: "I do want to go on record as advocating frequent and rigid official examination, whether State or Federal."

The convention had much to say of the Federal charter plan, to which Secretary Shaw drew particular attention in his last annual report. After pointing out the possible dangers from these companies, he proposed to give them "the privilege of incorporating under Federal law, with corresponding supervision"; and he argued that "if such right were extended, the more conservative would probably avail themselves thereof, and this would compel others to cultivate conservatism." The force of this argument did not appeal to us very strongly, since the companies thus incorporating would certainly have to give up very broad powers for privileges much more limited. In the case of the national banks, the exclusive right to circulate notes was an inducement to Federal incorporation, and, as a rule, the powers of the banks remained as they were under the old State charters. But whether the Federal plan is feasible or not, we do not consider it a solution of existing problems. What is needed is strict and careful revision of the State laws governing these institutions, and equally strict enforcement of public supervision. If this is not obtained in all regions where the operations of this type of companies are extensive, we shall have our day of reckoning in good season, and it will be one to remember. The most astonishing thing about the public attitude on this question is that any one with the faintest knowledge of our banking experience in 1837 and 1857 should for an instant imagine the present system to be safe.

At the close of August, when money could still be borrowed at the very low rates which had prevailed for a twelvemonth, the New York bank position was the weakest, and the surplus reserve the lowest, reached at that date in a dozen years. Although the cash in our city banks was $54,000,000 below the preceding year, loans were $45,000,000 greater; easy credit had absorbed, in one or another type of enterprise, an exceptionally large part of the market's ready capital. The approach of harvest-time, with the trade requirements consequent on the huge crops, foreshadowed extremely large interior demands for money. The expectation has proved correct. For the first time in three years, Wall Street has passed through a genuine "money squeeze." The interior's demands have drained away money from the New York bank reserve. The 25 per cent. ratio of that reserve to deposit liabilities has been kept good only by drawing gold from Europe, at a rate of exchange which hardly warranted such imports, and, apparently, by some jugglery with the statements. Day-to-day loans in Wall Street have gone as high as 8 per cent., and now bring 6—the highest rate for the season since the severe strain of 1902.

Rhode Island is promised a lively political campaign this autumn. The Democrats have nominated for Governor Dr. Lucius F. C. Garvin, who held the office for two terms, but who was swept out by the Republican tidal wave of last year. His popularity is proved by his two successes in a State normally Republican, and by the fact that in 1904 he was defeated by only 856 votes, while Roosevelt's plurality was 16,706. He appeals to the electorate of Rhode Island as a man who is virile, honest, an uncompromising opponent of the Aldrich-Perry-Brayton ring, and a champion of Constitutional reform. His campaigns, though dignified, have always been vigorous. In public meetings and in open letters he has fearlessly denounced the corruptionists who have made the politics of his State a cesspool. He has pointed out the malign alliance between the Republican ring and the traction interests that have fastened upon Rhode Island like a leech. Above all, he has, in season and out of season, labored for the one reform which is pregnant with all others, a new Constitution. Under the present antiquated instrument, a score of little rotten boroughs return a majority of the State Senate and block all legislation which is hostile to the ring. The Governor, without the power of veto, is almost helpless. The most that he can do is to rouse public sentiment through his messages and addresses.

Mr. William M. Ivins's nomination by the Republicans of this city, viewed in itself, would have made it at least possible to retrieve a situation grown well-nigh desperate. Here is a candidate for Mayor of undoubted capacity, of large acquaintance with municipal affairs, who, in 1886, was, as an independent Democrat, exposing the inner corruption of Tammany in alliance with certain Republicans, and was ferociously attacked for it by the *Tribune*, in language which that newspaper would not care to reprint to-day, and which we will not pain it by recalling. But what followed on his nomination shows that the Republicans are not going into the campaign with either seriousness or good faith. Their proceedings in the matter of county and borough nominations have all the appearance of a debonair recklessness, affronting the intelligence of their own party deliberately, in the full purpose of inviting defeat. Not content with spurning Jerome, therein flouting the advice and urgings of Mr. Ivins, the Republican machine has given us in his place Flammer! And as if to match the Tammany McGowan, it has dug up a Duffy! This is a farcical business. With it the Odell machine abandons the last pretence of earnestness or decency in this canvass. The reasons given for refusing to endorse Mr. Jerome are of the flimsiest. He had declined to make a specifically "anti-Tammany campaign"! That means simply that he had declined to be silent about Republican bosses and Republican corruption. Mr. Jerome has been consistently an independent candidate for reëlection, going directly to the people without first going on his knees to a boss. As we felt from the start, that was a defiance of machine tyranny which the tyrants could not forgive. They have not dared to attack Jerome openly, but they have set their minions secretly to work to crush him if possible.

Mr. Ivins's open letter to the other candidates for Mayor is vigorous and direct. His promise to continue in office for his full term, and not to be a candidate for any other place whatever, will, we trust, provoke McClellan into a similar declaration. Mr. Ivins clearly realizes that in accepting a nomination from the Odell-Halpin machine, he has laid himself under grave suspicion among all decent men. His announcement that he

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will be absolutely free from boss or party control is thus of unusual significance. If he will actually maintain himself in "absolute independence of every organization and individual," will conduct the city's business "without regard to partisan considerations," and will completely ignore "all merely national party" lines, he will give New York what it most needs at present. His challenge to McClellan and Hearst to meet them in public debate is not likely to be accepted. Hearst is not an effective speaker. McClellan will hardly care to defend on the stump such an appointment as that of Oakley, or to explain how it happens that Murphy in Manhattan, McCarren in Brooklyn, Haffen in the Bronx, and the most disreputable elements of Greater New York generally are among his enthusiastic supporters. If the Mayor were anxious for a joint debate with any one, he would lose no time in closing with Mr. Coler's specific charge that he first tried to crush McCarren, as a disreputable politician, and then, finding he could not, fell upon his neck.

There is a trite moral to be drawn from the tragic end of Armitage Mathews, but we shall merely point out that his shocking end, with its implied confession, is another indictment of the Republican organization in this city and county. That a man of his stamp could ever have been favored with an office at its hands, should have been impossible after his first term in the Board of Aldermen. That he should have actually been Secretary of the Republican County Committee, is plain evidence to what depths the organization has fallen. To men like Cornelius Bliss, Elihu Root, Horace Porter, and a host of others who think the salvation of the Republic depends on their party's success, this tragedy should come as an appeal to their political conscience. How much farther can their party sink? How much longer are Odell, Halpin, Gruber, Quigg, and others to stand for the decent Republicans of this city?

President McCurdy's explanation to the legislative committee makes both the end and the means of philanthropy so clear that every one will instantly recognize the disinterestedness of officers of insurance companies. The Mutual Life, said he, is "a great beneficent missionary institution," "participating in a great movement for the benefit of humanity at large." Such a concern would scorn the idea of encouraging a man to pay his premium in the hope that at the end of a year he would receive a dividend. If the policyholder got the dividend, say $7, he would "go home and spend it for cigars and billiards." President McCurdy's real object was "to insure as many men as possible, to pay them at their death, and not during their lifetime one penny." There speaks the true lover of mankind. Rather than demoralize policyholders with wealth, President McCurdy would draw a salary of $1,000,000 a year, instead of a mere $150,000, and would smoke cigars and play billiards all day. Think of the corrupting influence of $7 in the family of a country minister or doctor, and then thank heaven that President McCurdy, or one of his relatives, is willing to pocket the accursed gold. The new philanthropy calls for a new edition of that once popular juvenile 'Ministering Children.' The part of hero belongs to that sweet young innocent Robert H. McCurdy; and the minor parts may go to the various little McCurdys, McCalls, Alexanders, and Hydes, and their cousins and kin by marriage. The little band of angels was, like the fathers, animated by a single desire—to save the world from the deceitfulness and peril of riches.

The annual report of the Metropolitan Street Railway system is an interesting test of the practical effect of the Subway on city passenger traffic. The report of the street railway company for the fiscal year ending with June shows total earnings $596,000 below last year's. There are, however, some oddly perplexing facts about this decrease. The Metropolitan's president points out, to begin with, that the season of heavy snow blockades, which prevailed last winter, crippled earnings seriously. It appears, for instance, that, of this $596,000 shrinkage in earnings, $544,000, or nearly the whole, occurred in the three months of December, January, and February, when the blockade was most troublesome; whereas in June and July passenger earnings actually increased over last year. On the other hand, every one knows that winter is the time when Subway competition would injure the surface lines most seriously, whereas in summer, with the open street cars, the reverse should be expected. Behind all these considerations stands the fact of the amazing increase in total travel over city railways since the Subway was completed. If only the earnings for the quarter ended June 30 are taken, it will be found that while the street railway system lost $62,700 in its gross receipts, as compared with 1904, and the Elevated $547,000, the Subway earned $1,349,000. But as the Subway was not open in those months of 1904, its receipts may all be classed as increase. Deducting the losses on the surface and elevated lines, it is evident that, in that single quarter of the year, some $700,000 more was paid in 5-cent fares for local transportation than was paid a year ago.

A tense, suspicious, and timorous state of mind is displayed by nearly all the participants in the controversy over last May's threatened war between Germany and France, still raging between Germany, France, and England. Prince Bülow's interviews, the revelations and comments inspired by Delcassé, the semi-official utterances of the English press, all reveal a most unhappy international jealousy and distrust. The more Prince Bülow assumes an air of frankness, the more confident are both English and French that he is but masking his duplicity. The stouter Delcassé makes his denials, the less are they believed by the German press. British assurances to the German Foreign Office are perfunctorily reported to have been "satisfactory"; but every member of the German Navy League firmly believes, on the strength of the avowals of the London *Times*, that England was aching for a chance to join hands with France and sweep the German fleet from the sea. Thus the chief stock in trade of the statesmanship of either country seems to be settled suspicion of that of the other. Is the true moral of all this the one which the big-navy boomers of every land are drawing?

It would seem as if there must be a mistake in the report that, according to official returns, only 72,450 Japanese soldiers lost their lives in the war with Russia. Otherwise, some of the lurid war correspondence with which the public has been favored must needs be rewritten. According to this report, but 46,180 Japanese were killed outright, while 10,970 died from wounds, and 15,300 from disease; and these figures, it must be admitted, stand in proper proportion to one another. But if the losses were no greater, what of all the brigades and divisions wiped out at Mukden? or of the army corps which is supposed to have fallen at Port Arthur? Even if we were to allow five wounded for every soldier killed, the total casualties would not be over 276,000, which is not an exceptionally large figure when the desperate assaults on Port Arthur and the fierce character of the fighting at Nanshan, Liaoyang, the Shaho, and Mukden are considered. Certainly no foreigners who followed the armies will credit these figures. So far as the deaths from disease are concerned, they should be compared to the 5,000 lives sacrificed in our summer campaign with only 275,000 men in the field, as against the million or more Japanese who battled for a year and a half under the terrible Mantchurian conditions, to bring out the triumph of the Japanese sanitarians. Should these statistics prove to be correct, the world's impressions of the struggle will have to be sharply revised, and Japan will be open to congratulations that the number of lost lives is comparatively small. Also, we shall have to change our ideas about the deadliness of modern weapons.

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SHAW ON SHIPS.

If there has been any doubt that Secretary Shaw is a Presidential candidate, he removed it by his address to the bankers at Washington last week. Passing by all miserable interrogatories about currency and reserves and trust companies and the responsibility of directors, he went in gloriously for the old flag and an appropriation for shipping subsidies. Some may question the appropriateness of his discourse. What has the mercantile marine to do with the technique of banking? Would Mr. Shaw be capable of haranguing a congress of physicians about the Alaska fisheries, or urging upon the New England college presidents the advantages of farming in the Philippines? But such questions ignore the chief duty of a Presidential candidate. Nice points of good taste are not for him. Having got, as he thinks, a taking issue, he must air it on every occasion, whether bankers will hear or forbear.

Secretary Shaw has long made it plain that his chosen issue is ship subsidies. His latest deliverance was a surprise only in being so malapropos. He did, however, develop some of his older positions, thereby making them a little more indefensible. For example, he gave this hint of his method of getting Congress to vote a subsidy: "No difficulty is ever experienced in pressing a river and harbor bill, *if its benefits are sufficiently distributed.*" In other words, by skilful log-rolling, by striking hands in the dark to divide the plunder, by promises and bargains and bribes, it may yet be possible to induce Congress to increase the Treasury deficit by millions taken out for subsidies. This is an open advocacy of a policy of lavishness, ill becoming a Secretary of the Treasury at a time when the question of making both ends meet in national finance should occupy a serious mind. But then, Mr. Shaw is now more candidate than Secretary.

His argument fairly wallowed in the self-contradictions of a protectionist. We have "protected" the country into a prosperity which is the envy of the world; now we must "protect" it into a vast trade with foreign nations. Of course, that is the very thing protection was to prevent. Secretary Shaw professes to be the chief of those who stand pat on the Dingley tariff, and he ought to know what opinion the framer of that law held and expressed. It was the crass old protectionist view that the more this nation could be isolated commercially, the richer it would grow. Congressman Dingley avowed the wish that the oceans bounding us were seas of fire, so that no ships could cross them filled with abhorred foreign products. Yet it is in the name of a protection thus inspired that Mr. Shaw would have a marine artificially created to go in search of "new and important markets"!

There is always a comic as well as instructive aspect of the impotent anger of protectionists at finding that they have taxed American shipping out of existence. They remind one of a man who has fed and drunk himself fat and puffy and short-winded, and who falls into a rage when he discovers that he cannot win a free-for-all foot race in competition with trained athletes. The writs of protection do not run upon the high seas. There it is the best ship that wins—and the best ship is the one that is built with the greatest skill and economy, and sailed with the greatest intelligence, care, safety, and profit. Once let a nation admit that it cannot compete on equal terms, and it may as well quit the business. It may squander money in subsidizing inferior or too expensive vessels, and keeping them afloat for a time, but the inevitable crash will come in the end. The sea is free to all. Protection sinks like lead as soon as it leaves the land. Within your own coasts you may screw up the cost of materials and of labor, and handicap inventiveness and enterprise, while diminishing their rewards, by a backward and corrupting system of tariff taxes, but if you do it, you must be content to renounce the blue water. There the wholesome law of competition has free sway, and the survival of the fit is the rule. To listen to Secretary Shaw, one would think that ships were never built except by Government aid; yet, at the very moment he was speaking, the largest and latest example of modern marine architecture, the *Amerika*, was setting sail for our shores, the product of brains, not of bounties, the result of ingenuity and experience applied to seafaring, owned by a company which has built up a great fleet absolutely without subsidies.

We share to the full the desire to see the American mercantile marine restored to something like its prestige before protection and stupid navigation laws drove it from the seas. But we must meet the conditions squarely. No trick of subsidy will be of any lasting benefit. The nation has got to get rid of some of its "protected" flabbiness if it is going really to compete for the commercial mastery of the ocean—not, as Secretary Shaw would have it, try to brace itself up for the contest by another stiff horn of protection. We have not the slightest doubt that American ability and mechanical aptitude and executive capacity are adequate to the task of building and operating a mercantile fleet second to none; but first they must be given an object; the ships must have some promise of return cargoes; the fetters upon American industry forged by the protective system must be stricken off. The exultant stand-patter may be a sublime spectacle, but he will never stand on the bridge of an ocean steamship.

THE SORROWS OF THE OPTIMIST.

One of the significant signs of the time is the dejection of our old friend, the optimist. It is but a few years since his voice was heard in all parts of the land, and his cheerful loquacity had shamed every pessimist into respectful silence. In industry, in finance, in politics, in religious and social affairs, the reign of the optimist was absolute; and at his command the people were ready to laugh every carper out of court.

In industry, it will be remembered, the advent of the Trust promoter had banished competition and introduced the reign of that kindly and sympathetic cooperation which Mr. Perkins has recently declared to be the very life of the insurance business. Panics were to be abolished, and industry was to be scientifically "integrated" in a manner that should defy the forces of industrial depression. In finance, we were told, a new era had been introduced, in which the old rules were not to apply, while the teachings of past experience should count for nothing. Our financiers, their eyes in a fine frenzy rolling, were filled with boundless optimism concerning the value of securities, digested or undigested, and banished the last vestige of the old and pessimistic methods of appraising commercial assets. Sympathetic coöperation, with Christian charity for human frailties, prevailed universally in dealings between the promoter who supplied the watered stocks, the banker who agreed to underwrite them, and the insurance companies that furnished the money by which the deals were carried through. All hands were agreed to be as good trustees as they conveniently could; and it did seem that the coming of the financial millennium could not be long deferred. And this, of course, the optimist hastened to proclaim in season and out of season. President Alexander contributed to the *Atlantic* a roseate description of the new methods of caring for the funds of widows and orphans; Mr. Schwab, in the pages of the *North American*, severely castigated Russell Sage for expressing doubt concerning the new order of industrial society; while Chauncey Depew——!

The same genial spirit pervades all the political world. By assuming "new duties and responsibilities" in the East we all became model citizens at home. When it was rumored that graft still existed in the Executive departments at Washington, optimists Payne and Wilson declared the reports to be mere "hot air"; so that our complacency remained undisturbed. Then Dr. Hale assumed his duties as Senate chaplain, and discovered that his flock was composed of pure-souled children of God, who had

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been cruelly maligned by the rumor-mongers. It was clear, therefore, that national political life was on a higher plane than ever before in our history; and we were urged to inaugurate an era of good feeling, in which cruel criticism of public men should disappear, and all should take a hopeful view of the policies of the Republican party. Not to be outdone, sundry members of the clergy gave thanks to God that such an opportunity had come to spread the blessings of our civilization and religion in the benighted East. When, they asked, had God ever given a nation such a noble mission or such enlightened and righteous rulers?

But visions of Paradise so nearly regained were rudely shattered in 1902, when most unexpectedly the bottom fell out of the stock market. Something had gone wrong with the new plan for abolishing hard times, and pessimism as profound as the optimism of 1901 suddenly took possession of Wall Street. Then the lid was taken off from the Post-Office Department, and an unsavory mass of wretched scandals was revealed at Washington. Straightway the popular magazines instituted a systematic investigation of the darker nooks and corners of American life, and published, month after month, unpleasant stories of lawlessness and graft in city, in State, in industry. This made at first but little impression upon our indomitable optimists, who insisted that the evil was confined to a few sporadic cases. They were inclined, in fact, to attribute all the trouble to a few "soreheads" and "croakers," and put forth strenuous efforts to drown out the voices of the pessimists.

Yet, struggle as they would, their best efforts were in vain. The Post-Office revelations were followed by the exposure of the public-land frauds; and hardly had the courts begun work upon a new batch of Senators and Representatives when the scandals in the Agricultural Department came to light. Meanwhile, outside of official circles, some eminently respectable insurance grafters had fallen out with one another and begun to wash their dirty linen in public. In vain did Mr. Depew assure the people that the troubles would soon be "adjusted," and that the Equitable would speedily be "stronger than ever before"; vainly, too, did insurance magnates of other companies protest that not a suspicion of graft could attach to their own methods of doing business. Revelation followed revelation. Saddest of all was the discovery that the chief of the optimists, the genial Depew, was among the meanest of the grafters.

The *Nation* has been sometimes accused of pessimism; and it is true that, prior to 1902, when the optimist reigned triumphant in the land, this paper did express doubts about the immediate coming of the millennium which was expected to follow the new developments in industry, finance, and "world-politics." Indeed, in the exulting of the optimist we saw reason for the most serious misgivings. But in the process of heart-searching and house-cleaning now in progress, the *Nation* perceives only happy auguries for the future. It was the loquacious optimist who led us into the moral quagmire; now that his voice is silenced, even temporarily, there is hope that we may give heed to wiser counsels and retrace our steps to the safe, if narrow, highway of financial and political integrity. Perhaps from our recent experiences we may yet learn where and how to erect some fences that will prevent the future traveller from straying off in the bad company of the chattering optimist.

SIR HENRY IRVING.

To say that the English-speaking stage has lost its greatest surviving representative by the lamented death of Sir Henry Irving is to tell but a small part of the truth. It has lost also the one link that connected it with the days when the stage was yet capable of inspiring the respect of intelligent men and women; lost the influence of illustrious example, and the inspiration of a force whose tendency was, almost invariably, upward.

During the last few years several great actors have on their decease been praised, mourned, and forgotten. Their departure has created a certain void—it is certain that they have thus far no successors; but inasmuch as, in most instances, they stood for nothing but their own fame, their death, however deplorable, did not assume the character of a general calamity. But with Sir Henry Irving the case is different. In him existed the essence of the ideal theatrical spirit—the spirit that was charged with a sense of responsibility, with a conviction of the tremendous scope and limitless possibilities of the drama as an agent of intellectual and moral good in the form of entertainment, and an ambition to restore the stage to a dominant position among the arts; and with him that spirit, the spirit of high endeavor as opposed to the greed of mere commercialism, has, it is to be feared, vanished. It is true, of course, that his life-work was nearly done, that he was meditating an early retirement from the stage which he had adorned for nearly fifty years, and that, latterly, failing health and cruel losses had compelled him sometimes to subordinate the claims of art to the need of a competency for his old age; but even when he descended to popular melodrama as a sort of inevitable concession to a debauched public taste and the inexorable demands of sordid speculative management, he yet contrived to invest these performances with a dignity and a significance peculiar to his own productions, and redeemed them from the charge of being altogether trivial and vulgar. There was a fine illustration of this capacity which he had for elevating the scene, when his noble and pathetic figure of Dante imparted some sort of poetic value to the brazen and hollow ingenuities of the later Sardou.

His great service to the stage, of course, was done during the memorable years of his management at the London Lyceum, which became the Mecca of intelligent playgoers from all parts of the world. There he took up the work which was laid down, almost in despair, by Macready and resumed, with wonderful success, by Phelps at Sadlers' Wells. With the labors of the latter he was well acquainted. At one time, for a brief period, he shared in them, and it was in the Shaksperian precincts of the once despised Islington, doubtless, that he found the inspiration which later on was to lead him to wealth and fame. That this inspiration was deep in him cannot be questioned. It is no mere whim or vanity that could induce an actor who had won prosperity in such parts as *Digby Grant* and *Mathias* to risk both fortune and reputation in such a character as *Hamlet*. From the first his aim was to command success by the general perfection of his representations rather than by his own individual impersonations. No man, probably, knew better than he his own complete inadequacy for such characters as *Romeo* and *Claude Melnotte*, for instance, but he did not hesitate to undertake them, in the hope that the general excellence of the performance would compensate for his own deficiencies. Perhaps he would have been wiser if he had entrusted some of these parts to players better suited to them, but he must, at least, be credited with the courage which enabled him to dare all.

His career, at its best, was one long demonstration of the fallacies of the abominable "star" system, to which he, too, at the last, was compelled to have recourse. Wonderful as were many of his acting triumphs, it is nevertheless true that some of his most notable productions at the Lyceum owed their success quite as much to his associates as to his own efforts. His own renown as an actor still rests mainly upon his extraordinary ability in eccentric and romantic melodrama. It was in such parts as *Louis XI.*, *Mathias*, and *Malvolio*—to mention only a few types—that he was seen at his best. He was supremely great also in parts of high intellectual and spiritual quality, including such priestly studies as *Becket* and *Wolsey*. In his spectacle of "Faust," the mental quality of his *Mephistopheles* gave weight to the whole trivial show. His *Hamlet*, too, was full of intellectual brilliancy—perhaps a little too full—while

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sadly deficient in real tragic power. His *Macbeth*, again, was but a variation upon his *Mathias*. His *Richard III.* was a superb embodiment upon the intellectual and cynical side, but weak in its tragic moments; and illustrations of a similar kind might be continued indefinitely. In short, Irving was not a great tragic actor, ranking in this respect below Edwin Booth, Phelps, or Macready; but he was a great actor by virtue of his eminence in many directions and his supereminence in some.

It is, however, as the greatest of all modern actor-managers that he will be known hereafter in the chronicles of his period. He found the stage in hopeless disgrace and collapse, and for a time raised it to a position of admiration and respect. He showed how companies ought to be formed, how they ought to be directed, and how the resources of modern scenic art could be applied to the illustration of literary masterpieces. He raised not only the condition of the stage, but the social position of the performers themselves. He himself assumed a social rank almost unheard of among actors before, and the knighthood which acknowledged his worth lent it no additional emphasis. For almost a generation he has been the exemplar of all that a manager ought to be; and long indeed is it likely to be, judging from present appearances, before we shall look upon his like again.

THE CENTENARY OF TRAFALGAR

One hundred years ago, on the 21st of October, was fought Trafalgar; and as we look back from the vantage-ground of the present, we may dimly discern that no battle of the nineteenth century —not Waterloo, not Sedan, not Solferino, not Königgrätz—was charged with such consequences for the development of the world's civilization. Yet the learned scholar of a thousand years hence who, searching into the history of our age, should chance on a store of French newspapers for the year 1805, might search them through and through and never suspect that so much as an engagement between two frigates had occurred. France, or rather her ruler, Napoleon, chose to pass over in complete silence the great event that had taken place on the Atlantic Ocean; and that silence tells us that the significance of Trafalgar was immediately realized. The more significant the event, the less Napoleon's pride allowed him to acknowledge it.

Notwithstanding his despotic methods, notwithstanding his cruel abuse of war, there is a penetration, a prophetic insight about Napoleon's political perceptions that appeals to every intelligent student of his history. He saw what we, a century later, marvel at as a new thing: all the continents merged into one great political arena. He was prepared, one hundred years ago, to deal with the Indus as the strategic turning-point of the globe; and this is what we deem the most startling novelty in the latest diplomatic achievement of our own day. He was prepared to conquer by placing himself at the head of an army of Asiatics, while we, at the beginning of the twentieth century, are still agog at Great Britain's foresight in making of an Asiatic power her equal ally. He perceived that, in world politics, to use our present phrase, the control of the sea is decisive, and that control he set to work to obtain.

In that attempt he failed, and the record of his failure is inseparably connected with the name of Nelson. That is why the name of that great fighter and sailor is surrounded by a halo of veneration by his countrymen. It was he, and what he stood for, that made the British Empire possible. Nelson belongs less to history than to the Imperial tradition; he represents an ideal more than a subject for historical research. And it is best so. Not that the historians have allowed him to repose in peace. He had scarcely been laid in the marble tomb that so many reverently visit in St. Paul's Cathedral, before Southey wrote his life and told the public that its hero was of the earth earthy. Since then controversy has raged, and during the last fifteen years with great bitterness. Learned professors have lost their reason over Nelson, have slung ink on his behalf, or in his condemnation, with the zeal of pamphleteers. Passion rivalling that of mediæval theology has been displayed over the interpretation of his least fortunate actions. But the great British public remains calmly indifferent to the disputes of the historians, and clings faithfully to its hero.

In truth, Nelson, as he appears to the dispassionate observer, is a somewhat disconcerting figure. This little flaxen-haired, one-eyed, one-armed man hardly belongs to the nineteenth century. If Napoleon was modern, Nelson was Elizabethan. He would have taken the *Victory* straight into the midst of a French fleet with as cool unconcern as Grenville steered the *Revenge* for the *San Felipe* and her consorts. His mouth was ever full of exaggerated sentiment, chiefly of hatred for the enemies of his country, of ardor for his coarse enchantress, Emma Hamilton. In such sentiments he was as whole-souled as a Viking, as blunt as a boatswain, and it is difficult to forget that he enjoyed having the head of a Jacobin pickled, or that he gulped down with childish vanity Lady Hamilton's outrageous doses of flattery. But what does it all matter? The great fact, the fact that remains, is that in those supreme moments in which the destinies of men and of nations are decided, he had the genius that compels victory. It was not force, but genius, for in most of his great battles he was outnumbered; and although Napoleon, as is generally forgotten, still possessed a great fleet of battleships after Trafalgar, he acknowledged after that decisive test the superiority of Great Britain on the sea—her superiority in genius.

What was the nature of this supreme quality in Nelson, of the quality that focussed in him the whole fighting efficiency of the Saxon, of the Dane, and of the Norman? In the first place, he had the ordinary skill of the seaman highly developed. The landsman still wonders at his calm confidence in the early hours of the 21st of October, 1805. On the horizon hung the long line of Villeneuve's sails crossing the *Victory's* bows. The wind was very light; the ships crept but slowly over the water. Nelson's problem was so to direct the course of the British fleet as to strike the French line in the centre and divide it at that point. How delicate and unerring his judgment was, is shown by the fact that, two hours before the *Victory* got within cannon-shot, he closed his telescope, and, turning to Captain Hardy, declared that he had now done all that could be done, and that it remained for his captains and sailors to do their part. He gave practically no more orders from that moment, and it is recorded that the fleets eventually came into contact precisely as he had intended.

In seamanship Nelson had peers; he had none in his fighting instinct. He never accepted the defensive; he always sought out his enemy; he was ever careless of victory or defeat, content to get within range and to pour forth all the damage and destruction of which he was capable. And that, after all, is the whole secret of successful war. High intelligence will help the nation that is driven to this last arbitrament, but the supreme quality must ever be determination to destroy the enemy. It is just in the matter of this mental attitude that the shadow of a doubt crosses the mind as to Lee's conduct of the army of Northern Virginia; it is at all events clear that in this respect Stonewall Jackson, and not his great commander, was the exact counterpart of Nelson.

Fortunately, the opinion of the peaceful citizen is now, in all countries, of more weight than in times gone by; war appears less necessary, more criminal. At the same time we are evidently not yet out of the period when the struggle for national existence must still be the crucial test of every community. Some communities, indeed, are faced by problems that make war probable at a period more or less near, and among such communities, unfortunately, is England. British civilization—and in the largest sense our own country represents its most advanced form—has spread its benefits ostentatiously over

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the globe. It has carried with it not only increased happiness for all men, but increased wealth; and that wealth is viewed with envy. During one hundred and fifty years one thing alone has maintained untouched this greatest of all factors in the advance of humanity, and that thing is the British fleet. England has occasionally lost sight of this fact, though never for long. But the ships are not everything, as Napoleon found to his cost; there must be a spirit behind them. It is that spirit which England looks for in the tradition of Horatio Nelson.

And so on the hundredth anniversary of the battle in which Nelson fell in victory, the British Navy League distributes far and wide patriotic pamphlets and shilling souvenirs carved from the old oaken timbers of the ship that carried the British admiral on the brave day of Trafalgar. And those whose business it is to comment on passing events attempt to point the moral. That task will have been accomplished in this place if attention is once more directed to the fact that there are two Nelsons, one the subject for historical investigation, the other a national hero, the embodiment of a national ideal. It is this second Nelson whose festival is now being observed by our cousins over the water.

POSSIBLE EFFECTS ON ENGLAND OF JAPAN'S TRIUMPH.

LONDON, October 4, 1905.

During the war with Russia, Japan has commanded the deserved and all but universal sympathy of England; but Englishmen who have at last, though very slowly, begun to appreciate the marvellous character of Japan's sudden rise to a place among the great Powers of the world, have allowed gratified astonishment to banish sober reflection, and—to judge from the tone of our press, whether gathered from the most sensational of daily newspapers or from the gravest of quarterly reviews—have hardly turned their attention towards the astounding and perhaps lasting effects which may flow from an extraordinary and unforeseen event.

One immediate effect of Japan's triumph is visible to every one. The attitude of England in the East has undergone a change. English statesmanship now relies for the maintenance of our Eastern Empire, not upon England's isolated and unaided strength, but upon the force derived from an intimate partnership between the two strongest of naval Powers. The Japanese navy has rivalled the triumphs of English seamanship, and the navies of England and Japan are now united, by the bonds of a treaty, as one force, prepared to defend Japan on the one hand and the Eastern possessions of England on the other against all assailants. This great naval league is a new thing in the history of the world. The statesmanship which has created it has aroused the almost unanimous applause of England, and is, we are told—I doubt not with truth—as popular in Tokio as it is in London. So completely has English public opinion endorsed the action of the English Government that a ministry which is apparently losing its hold upon the country, is deemed even by its opponents unassailable as regards the Japanese alliance. Yet this admired stroke of statesmanship is itself a satire on the theories and claims of modern Democrats. The alliance which binds together the fortunes of Great Britain and Japan was no result of parliamentary debate. It was the work of statesmen who did not in this matter consult either Parliament or the electors, but exercised (no doubt with the assent and approval of the King) one of the most striking of royal prerogatives. The treaty-making power still lies with us in the hands of the executive. This is a point well worth consideration by constitutionalists who suppose, erroneously enough, that prerogatives of the crown which are rarely used are dead.

Japanese victories have already changed popular ideas as to the East. The notion, sanctioned by many eminent thinkers, had obtained currency that Eastern states were stationary; the belief, justified by the experience of many generations, that in any conflict between an Eastern and a European Power victory must fall to Europe, had assumed the character of an incontrovertible dogma. These ideas have now, in the opinion of most Englishmen, been proved erroneous. One Eastern state has fallen into the line of European progress, and has progressed more rapidly and perhaps advanced further in the arts of civilization than many European countries. Japan has adopted the latest forms of constitutional government, and has seized hold of the political ideas prevalent in the most progressive countries. Japan has assuredly shown a preëminent capacity for turning to account the inventions of every civilized community. Japan, again, has defeated on land and on sea one of the most powerful of European states. No doubt the change of feeling produced by striking events is far from entirely rational; a revolution of belief is always mixed up with a mass of exaggeration. People to whom, even two or three years ago, it seemed absolutely incredible that Japan should be able to resist the attack of Russia, now appear to assume that Russian power is a thing of the past, and that the forces of Japan will turn out in every contest an ever victorious host. But the question with which we are concerned is not the validity, but the existence, of certain opinions; and no candid observer can doubt that, for the moment, Englishmen at any rate are filled with astonishment and admiration at the achievements of their ally, and believe that Japan not only has achieved an immense triumph, but has also reversed the course of history, and forced us to form a quite new estimate of the triumphs, not only in arms, but in all the arts of civilization, that may be achieved by an Eastern state. This new belief may, indeed, turn out a delusion; but a faith firmly embraced may, even though it rest on delusion, produce, for a time at least, as many miracles as a creed which rests on the most certain and the most reasonable grounds.

Nor is it in the world of action—in the sphere, say, of diplomacy or of war—that the success of Japan is likely to produce the most extraordinary, and it may be the most formidable, results. Man is above all things an imitative animal: what he admires he imitates. Admiration itself is all but a form of imitation. Now the admiration felt for Japan by the Englishmen of to-day is one of the most patent phenomena of our time. Of the bravery, the skill, and the patriotism displayed by our allies, it is hardly possible to speak in too strong terms. It is absolutely certain that the classes who at present guide the policy of Japan must possess some rare virtues, and possess such virtues in a very rare degree. There runs throughout English society a curious idea not only that there are good and great men to be found in Japan, which is true enough, but that all Japanese are good and great, which is assuredly false. And with this idea is connected another, which obtains the readiest acceptance, that the Japanese, with virtues greater than those to be found in most European and Christian countries, have not, like the inhabitants of all other States, faults as well as virtues of their own. This sort of unqualified trust in the virtues of our allies is inconsistent with all the lessons of history, and all the inferences to be drawn from the knowledge and observation of human nature.

If there be one theological doctrine of which philosophers may accept the essence while rejecting the form, it is the dogma of original sin. The true life and the inner thought of Japan are at present equally unknown to us. I am willing enough to admit that the peculiar history of the Japanese people has produced special characteristics well worthy of respect or reverence. This one may not only admit, but hold to be almost certain. But the virtues, no less than the defects, of Christendom, are themselves the outcome of a long and complicated history, and of traditions, political, moral, and religious, in which our allies have not shared. It is folly to assume that a people whom we scarcely know, possess, in combination with the noblest characteristics of their own, every virtue which we rightly hold to be the product of the philosophy, the jurisprudence, the ethics, and the religious ideals which make up the realization of Christendom. This unbounded admiration excited by the heroic efforts of the Japanese to protect the independence and extend the power of their country is certain, in the long run, to promote imitation of Japanese habits and institutions.

But the matter does not end here. Englishmen have hitherto tacitly assumed that progress is identified with Christianity, and also with ideals derived from Greece and Rome. But Japan is a country which, while claiming and obtaining a place among the great civilized powers of the world, has been uninfluenced by the history and the literature of Judea, of Greece, or of Rome. There is a sense, indeed, in which Christendom has less in common with the civilization of Japan than with the civilization of Mohammedan Powers. Is it not conceivable that the rise of this non-Christian State will tell in many ways on the thoughts of Christendom? Is it not certain that the ethical and religious influence of Japan will, in all European countries or countries which derive their civilization from Europe, be vastly increased by the existence of that general disintegration of

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beliefs which is a marked phenomenon of our time? But this topic is of too vast and complicated a character to be dealt with at the end of a letter, the aim of which will be accomplished if any readers of the *Nation* should be convinced that the triumph of Japan not only is an astonishing occurrence, but is also an event big with unforeseen and unknown consequences.

It may be allowable to add that this letter is written in no spirit of hostility to England's new ally. The present writer, in common with most other Englishmen, has watched the resistance of Japan to Russian aggression with sympathy, and, further, believes that, against the errors committed by the Unionist ministry, must be fairly set the boldness and the wisdom with which Mr. Balfour and his colleagues have fostered and strengthened the alliance between England and Japan.

AN OBSERVER.

THE ECONOMIC HESITATION IN ENGLAND.

DAWLISH, DEVON, September, 1905.

Plutarch, discoursing in his 'Morals' of the affairs of divers ancient peoples, declares that the prosperity of the Romans must be attributed to fortune. Not that the Romans had not great qualities—he gives them due praise; but, on a number of occasions which he specifies, circumstances favored them most wonderfully. The scales were trembling when some trifling event not the result of human volition turned the balance on their side, and they knew how to use their advantage. We moderns are not accustomed to speak of fortune as a cause, at least when we assume to be speaking scientifically, and we certainly would not hold true the refrain of the French song:

"Du bout du monde
Au bout du monde
Le hasard seul fait tout."

Nevertheless, disguise it as we will, we cannot help attributing exceptional prosperity, whether of a man or a people, to favoring conditions; and we are even readier to recognize misfortune as a *vera causa*. When one considers the amazing prosperity of the English people, after allowing full effect to their numerous virtues, there is a great residuum which can be explained only as the result of chance. It is, of course, superfluous to mention such advantages as their temperate climate, their bulwarks of stormy water, which differ from most fortifications in contributing, through the fisheries, to the common support, instead of being a burden—and their mines of coal and ore. Nor need we dwell on the material gain, or, perhaps we should say, the absence of loss, arising from the comparative homogeneity of the population and the mildness of religious controversies and differences. It is easy to see that these conditions, with the absence of dynastic disputes and revolutions, have enabled the common people to escape the military servitude which weighs down that class on the Continent—in itself an immense economic advantage. That trade should flourish under such circumstances is natural, but its prodigious development is, on the whole, to be explained by the removal of legislative restraints. Some measure of prosperity the English people would have enjoyed under any conceivable misgovernment, as Macaulay says; but there would have been no such accumulation of wealth as has taken place under the policy of free trade.

To be sure, this policy is not commonly spoken of as the gift of fortune. It is described as the embodiment of reasoned convictions. But, as a matter of fact, the reasoned convictions were the property of a small fraction of the educated class, and the corn-laws could not have been repealed had not the potatoes rotted for two years in succession in Ireland. The landlords, as a class, were then, as they are now, as they always have been and probably always will be, bigoted protectionists; the manufacturers as a class, wanted the taxes that hindered their business removed that their own gains might be increased, not because they accepted the principle of free trade. The common people knew little about principles, but they knew that bread was taxed and that they were starving because they could not afford to buy it at the price to which it was raised, as they were told, by this taxation. Their distress was grievous; it was not only pitiful, but alarming. Something had to be done to pacify, if not to relieve them; and Peel, with the convictions of a statesman, but by what his party regarded as a betrayal of his trust, took off the odious taxes. The relief was immediate; or, at all events, the suffering decreased, and the *post ergo propter* argument, always conclusive with most men, brought the policy of free trade into such favor that it carried everything before it. Even the landlords found their rents presently rising instead of falling; and, although perplexed at such a mysterious phenomenon, they could not very well grumble at being enriched when they had anticipated ruin.

Now the overthrow of protection (or, as Mill preferred to call it, the policy of restricting trade) was perhaps the greatest reform that was ever effected without revolution. Indeed, it would be hard to specify any reform effected through revolution that can be compared with it. It was a much greater reform than was understood by the mass of the English people. What they wanted was not a different principle of government, but cheaper food; and they got both. What the great leaders in the movement wanted was not cheaper food more than a change in the principle of government. Cobden said it was not the pounds, shillings and pence that he cared most about. He, and those who worked with him, longed for peace and good will on earth, and they knew no better way to promote it than to banish from government the practice of levying taxes either for the purpose of increasing the gains of a few citizens at the expense of the rest, or for the purpose of diminishing the gains of foreigners, no matter at whose expense. For it seems still not to be clearly understood that free trade, during centuries to come, perhaps, does not mean the abolition of customs duties, but taxation for revenue only. If government can obtain its necessary revenue most economically by levying customs duties, the free-trader does not object. His position is simply that rulers shall not tax the many for the gain of the few, nor tax commerce in order to inflict loss on foreigners. In either case government is corrupted, and in the latter case international hatred is stirred up. Would not Plutarch be justified in calling it the gift of fortune that the English people, calling for cheaper bread, received not only that, but also a principle of government more enlightened and beneficent than was ever enjoyed by any considerable people, under which they have had a half century of unparalleled prosperity?

Nor has fortune ceased to smile on this people. Other countries—our own, for example—having adopted an evil principle of government, cannot get rid of it. England, having blundered, or at least stumbled, into a sound system, finds it impossible to change it; for there are many reasons for believing that a majority of the English people, even of the better educated, would reject the principle of free trade, and would abandon the practice, if they could agree on any substitute. The landlords, if they ever had any doubts, are now protectionists *à outrance*. Cheap transportation brought their rents down, and a Liberal Government confiscated a large part of their remaining wealth by its enormous death duties. They would have the corn laws back again to-morrow if they could. The Imperialists—at least those of the Chamberlain type; for there are a few who cling to free trade with the invincible faith ascribed by Gibbon to the theologians who hold to both free-will and predestination—can propitiate the colonies only by taxes intended to injure other countries. Even among the manufacturing classes there is much wavering. Chamberlain is not likely to mistake the sentiment of Birmingham; and the grievous burden of the Boer war taxes has caused profits and wages to shrink everywhere. Workmen are not so comfortable as they were, and they are not all indisposed to listen to the argument, familiar to our ears, that foreign competition is ruining home industry. Talk with the people in Westmorland, where copper-mining is ceasing to be profitable, and they will tell you that American copper is brought in at a price which means ruin to the English producer. Talk with the Welsh people, and they will tell you that the French send over slates and sell them at prices which mean lower wages, or no wages, to the quarrymen in Wales. Go to Scotland, and they will point to Galashiels, where both masters and men have been reduced from affluence to poverty because of the prohibitory taxes imposed by our country on imported woollen goods. It is a political truism that when people are suffering they want conditions changed, and that then is the opportunity of the political charlatan.

What shall we say, then, of the recent action of the Trade-Union Congress, at which a resolution in support of the principle of free trade was adopted by a vote of 1,253,000 against 26,000? This means that Chamberlain's proposal to tax bread has no attraction for a poor man. It is not easy to convince him that he would not have to pay more for his bread, or that he would have more to pay withal. But there are several indications that the Trade Unionists do not hold to the principle of free trade, even if they do not favor a change of the existing tariff. Indeed, the most fundamental principle of the trade union is the same as that of the protectionists—special favors to special classes. Workmen outside

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their ranks shall get no work if they can help it; and they insist on having a monopoly of governmental employment. The same congress that declared for free trade declared also that Government should feed school children as well as teach them; and Henry George's plan of "nationalizing" the land, *i. e.*, confiscating rents, is regularly approved by this body. Recently the employees of the telegraph service demanded more pay, threatening members of Parliament just as our postmen threaten our Congressmen. The Postmaster-General investigated the case, and it was proved beyond question that these employees were already in receipt of higher wages than persons in private employment doing equivalent work. He declared that he would not hold office if he were compelled to increase the discrimination in favor of a class even now too much favored; but the Radical press, ignoring the facts, roundly berated him, and the Trade-Union Congress endorsed the claims of the telegraphers. Under such circumstances a resolution commending free trade must be regarded as a rather academic declaration.

For the present, therefore, the law of inertia will prevail. Were the Liberals in office, Chamberlain might turn them out and try his experiment. But the Conservatives are in office without daring to let the experiment be tried, and when the Liberals come in they will certainly not try it. But the crisis will come when the Liberals are turned out—and it seems impossible that they should keep office long. They could hardly make up a cabinet out of the discordant elements of which their majority would be composed. The Irish will help only if paid for it. The Radicals are essentially Socialists; the *Daily News* lays it down that no one who does not favor municipal trading shall call himself a Liberal. A Liberal ministry would have to pander to both factions, and the country would soon be disgusted. That thousand million of dollars lost in South Africa will continue to lessen wages and profits under a Liberal Government, and the enormously increased military expenditure will yet make the weary Titan stagger. It is doubtful if such a government would venture to economize in this particular; the people seem to have eaten of the insane root, and the young men are all playing at soldiers. The panic which seized the country when Napoleon gathered his force at Boulogne has returned; people dream of invasion, and shudder at the thought of possible starvation if their enemies should sweep their commerce from the seas.

MACG.

MONTALEMBERT.

PARIS, September 30, 1905.

The past year in the French Chambers and in the French press has been full of discussions on the future relations of Church and State. The Concordat which was made by the First Consul, Bonaparte, and which is now *de facto* abrogated, lasted exactly a century. The future relations of Church and State will depend not only on the law which has been prepared by the French Chamber, and which will soon be submitted, but also on the interpretation and application of this law, and on the spirit which will animate the future Governments. Cavour's famous "Libera Chiesa in libero Stato" is a fine formula, but may be an empty word if the State is not inspired by tolerant and generous sentiments.

I have before me a book which has attracted my attention as emanating from a man who was for some time in the French Chambers, but who is known chiefly as a philanthrophist and as an active Catholic, M. Léon Lefébure, member of the Institute. He belongs to a class of laics who have the fervor of the Catholic priesthood. His work has for its title 'Portraits of Believers of the Nineteenth Century'—to wit, the well-known Montalembert; Augustin Cochin, a great philanthropist; François Rio; and A. Guthlin. The portrait of Montalembert recalled to me a volume, 'Montalembert,' written in 1897 by the Viscount de Meaux, his son-in-law, who became one of the ministers of the Broglie Cabinet. (M. de Meaux has recently published a remarkable volume on the Constituent Assembly of 1870, of which he was a member, and on the administration of Marshal MacMahon.) M. de Meaux sums up in this way the career of Montalembert:

"He conquered for France a new liberty, the only one which has been vindicated without violence and practised without disorder: the liberty of teaching. He did more; a declared enemy of the Revolutionary spirit, but a passionate friend of all liberties, he wished to employ these and these only in the defence of religion. He aimed to give religion a place at the hearth of modern society—an enterprise which he pursued through many difficulties."

Montalembert was born on the 15th of March, 1810. His father was an *émigré*, his mother was English. He was a type of the union of two races, and always preserved traces of his semi-English origin. He was educated by his Protestant grandfather, James Forbes, and spent his youth in England. His father had taken service in India, in the English army, during the Empire, and, after the fall of Napoleon, was appointed French minister to Stuttgart. Montalembert finished his studies in Paris, his father, meanwhile, having been made a peer. He was in England when the Revolution of 1830 broke out, made a visit to Ireland, which was in as great a ferment as France, and, on his return to France, joined the literary staff of a new paper, *L'Avenir*, in association with the Abbé de Lamennais and the Abbé Lacordaire. This journal never had many subscribers, but it made a great sensation; its programme was the alliance of religion and liberty. Its leaders stood off from the Legitimists, and were in favor of parliamentary government; they claimed perfect liberty for the Catholic Church. On his return from Ireland, Montalembert wrote: "I am no longer the same man. . . . My faith and my fervent attachment to Catholicism are no longer what they were. . . . I have gained here ten years of strength and of life." He was a Catholic Liberal, and, we may add, a combative Catholic. His combativeness, and the difficulty of reconciling his liberalism with ultramontane doctrines, prepared for him an arduous life; and it may be said that he struggled always with his natural friends as with his enemies.

He had the natural and invaluable gift of eloquence. Once, in the House of Peers, he said: "If you ask me on what occasion these convictions were born in my soul, I will tell you that it was on the day when I saw, fourteen years ago, the cross torn from the churches of Paris, dragged in the city streets, and thrown into the Seine, amid the plaudits of a maddened populace. This profaned cross I placed in my heart, and I swore to defend it"—language for which the Peers were very little prepared. When he appeared on the 19th of September, 1831, before the House of Peers for the first time, "I have," said he, "over the name which I bear, a name which is as great as the world, the name of Catholic. . . . There is something which is called faith, and this faith is not dead in all hearts. I have given to it my heart and my life; I am ready to sacrifice everything to the great and holy cause to which I have dedicated myself."

Montalembert did not enlist in any political party; he belonged neither to the monarchy nor to the republic; he belonged to a universal church. But there were divisions in this church. The founders of *L'Avenir* did not long remain united. The doctrines of the paper were examined in Rome and criticised; Lamennais did not feel disposed to accept all the Pope's decisions—"this old man, who knows nothing of the affairs of the world and who has no notion of the state of the Church, surrounded by men to whom religion is as indifferent as it is to all the cabinets of Europe, ambitious, greedy, . . . counting the people for nothing." Lamennais wrote these lines to a friend from Rome, which he called "a great tomb, where not much is found but worms and bones"; he spoke with warmth of "this moral desert, of these ruins, where you look in vain for movement, for faith, for love." Lacordaire was also in Rome, with Montalembert, waiting for the papal judgment. The doctrines of *L'Avenir* were solemnly condemned in the encyclical "Mirari vos." Lamennais submitted, as well as his two friends; but in 1834 he wrote to Montalembert that he abandoned his ecclesiastical functions; that he had signed the formulas sent to him for the sake of peace, but that he could no longer remain in the Church; that Catholicism, as it was understood in Rome, seemed to him a dying or dead form. Montalembert and Lacordaire now remained alone; they had shown their submission to Rome, but they did not abandon their liberal views. Montalembert, especially, believed in the necessity of reconciling the Church with parliamentary government and liberal institutions.

Under the Government of Louis-Philippe, from 1843 to 1848, Montalembert was the soul of the Catholic movement; after 1848, he was one of the leaders of a campaign undertaken for liberty of teaching. Curiously enough, the law of 1850, which gave liberty of teaching to the religious communities, under the supervision of the State, was violently attacked by the Catholic press and by a portion of the clergy; Montalembert was accused of having sacrificed the Church to the French University, and he lost some of his popularity. He committed a great error at the moment of the *Coup d'État* of December 2. All his friends in the French Assembly were victims of it; they were imprisoned and proscribed. The Second Empire, at its origin, had the élite of the nation opposed to it. Montalembert's name was placed on the list of a consultative committee, designed by the author of

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he *Coup d'État* and placarded on all the walls of Paris. Montalembert went to the Élysée on the evening of the 5th of December. The Prince was very calm and phlegmatic as usual:

"My mission," he said, "is to reëstablish order in this country. . . . You reproach me with always speaking of order while invoking constantly the Revolution. But I see in the Revolution only the accomplished facts and the new interests which it created. . . . I assure you that there is no change in my disposition with regard to religion and the Pope. I desire their triumph, but stripped of the exagerrations which might hurt them without helping them."

Montalembert left the Élysée still irresolute. The Bishop of Orléans, Dupanloup, Father de Ravignan, as well as Lacordaire, advised him not to rally to the Empire; his lay friends gave him the same counsel. He disregarded their advice, and when the people were consulted in a solemn plébiscite, he urged Catholics not to abstain, but to give their assent. "To vote for Louis Napoleon," he wrote in a public letter dated December 12, 1851, "is not to approve all he has done; it is to choose between him and the total ruin of France. My choice is made." This declaration, which he regretted for the rest of his life, did not give him any real influence with the Prince; and, three weeks after, he ceased to visit the Élysée. He refused a seat in the Senate, he was for a time a member of the Corps Législatif, but soon understood that there was nothing for him to accomplish there, and he wrote, when he left it: "Nobody will know what I have suffered in this cave, without air or light, where I spent six years struggling with reptiles."

After his retirement from active politics, Montalembert gave himself up entirely to literary pursuits, like Guizot, Villemain, Tocqueville. An article which he wrote in a review on England was found objectionable to the Government, and he incurred a condemnation which might have had exile for its consequence. A few days afterwards, on December 2, 1858, the official journal published a note which was thus conceived: "The Emperor, on the occasion of the anniversary of the 2d of December, has relieved the Count de Montalembert of the condemnation pronounced upon him." This was by way of reminder that he had contributed to the establishment of the Government which he attacked. He did not accept this pardon, but took an appeal to a higher court, and was condemned only to an insignificant fine.

I shall not speak of the works which Montalembert published on monastic orders and on great saints, but will confine myself to his public career. He summed up his views, which were at the same time religious and political, in these words: "The future of modern society depends on two problems: to correct democracy by liberty, to reconcile Catholicism with democracy." He spoke for the last time in public in 1863, at the Catholic Congress of Malines. After a very long and painful illness, he died in Paris on the 13th of March, 1870. He was spared the torture which would have been inflicted on him by the war of 1870 and the invasion of France. His figure is so commanding that the other figures traced by M. Lefébure fall somewhat into the shade. His book deserves, however, to be read *in toto*, especially the chapters which concern Cochin, the Christian philanthropist, and Rio, the well-known author of 'Art Chrétien.'

Correspondence.

JESUS THE GALILEAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: G. H. Warner, in his 'Jewish Spectre,' repeats the fancy of former anti-Jewish writers, that Jesus of Nazareth was not a Jew of Judea, but a Galilean; only thus could he possess the idealism foreign to the true Jew.

Among the ten million Jews of our day about nine-twentieths belong to the German and Polish ritual, hardly one-twentieth to the Spanish and Italian ritual. The pronunciation of Hebrew followed by the former points them out unmistakably as descendants of the Galileans, while the latter are the true Judeans, to judge by the same token. Thus, if the high idealism of the Nazarene, shown in his actions and teachings, sheds honor on his special kinsmen, the Galileans and their descendants, it enures to the benefit of the vast majority of present-day Jews.

Yours truly, L. N. D.

Louisville, Ky., October 11, 1905.

SWISS RAILWAY TICKETS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent in the *Nation* of October 12 deserves thanks for calling attention to the extremely useful form of railway ticket called "abonnement général," issued by the Swiss railways; but the information that he gives is incorrect in almost every detail. These tickets are issued for first, second or third class, and not only for a month, but for two weeks, three months or a year. The third-class ticket for one month costs forty francs, not seventy-five, which is the price of a second-class ticket for the same period. For a fortnight the rate is slightly higher than one-half of the rate for a month. The holder may, indeed, travel all day and all night, not only on the trains, but also on the lake steamers; but the tickets are not good on all the roads in Switzerland—those from Visp to Zermatt and from Interlaken to Grindelwald, for instance, as well as most of the mountain roads, being excepted. The only red tape to be gone through in procuring the ticket is that the user must furnish a photograph of himself, of an appropriate size, to be pasted on the ticket, for purposes of identification. These tickets can be had at any station in Switzerland, also at the agency of the Swiss railways in Milan; at the stations in large cities they are delivered at once; in small places, notice of twenty-four hours is required. The convenience of this araringement is very great, to say nothing of the economy. Cook's agents would probably profess dense ignorance of the whole matter; but the traveller who is no linguist will find that a great many of the railway officials in Switzerland speak English and are reasonably courteous.

Similar tickets are issued for Belgium, for Italy (divided for this purpose into zones), and for parts of France. Most travellers will find them more useful than the old-fashioned "circular tour."

Kenneth McKenzie.

New Haven, Conn., October 16, 1905.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons will publish directly 'Outdoor Pastimes of an American Hunter,' by Theodore Roosevelt; 'Essays in Application,' by Henry Van Dyke; 'A History of Egypt,' by James Henry Breasted; 'The House of Mirth,' by Edith Wharton; and 'The Fairy Godmother-in-law,' by Oliver Herford.

The horticultural wizard, Luther Burbank, is the subject of W. S. Harwood's 'New Creations in Plant Life,' just being published by Macmillan Co., together with 'The Character of Renaissance Architecture,' by Professor Charles H. Moore, of Harvard, profusely illustrated.

J. B. Lippincott Co.'s announcements include 'Newport: Our Social Capital,' by Mrs. John King Van Rensselaer; 'Facts and Fancies about Java,' by Augusta De Wit; 'Round about Pekin,' by Mrs. Archibald Little; 'Primitive Art in Egypt,' by Jean Capart; 'Natural History in Zoölogical Gardens,' by Frank E. Beddard; 'Figure Composition,' by Richard G. Hatton; and 'Saddle and Song,' an anthology.

Small, Maynard & Co. have nearly ready 'The Fleeing Nymph,' a new volume of verse by Lloyd Mifflin; 'A Handbook of Figure-Skating,' by George H. Brown; and 'John Fiske,' by Thomas Sergeant Perry (in the "Beacon Biographies").

The Oxford University Press will publish immediately an authorized translation of G. Schiaparelli's 'Astronomy in the Old Testament.'

George Borrow's habit of sprinkling his works with his assorted lingoes, especially the gipsy, without translating the word or phrase, prepared a welcome for his 'Romano Lavo-lil: Wordbook of the Romany or English Gipsy Language,' published in 1873. It is now reissued in very open and readable typography by Murray in London (New York: Putnams). The vocabulary proper occupies about fifty pages; the miscellany which succeeds is largely bilingual, displayed on opposing pages, and embraces anecdotes, songs, dissertations on the English gipsies and gipsy names, on fortune-telling and the metrcpolitan gipsyries, etc. In the last section, "Kirk Yetholm," Borrow himself appears in one of his inimitable conversations, armed with his inseparable umbrella. No Borrow library can dispense with this book.

A selection, with decent omissions, of 'The Love Poems of John Donne,' by Charles Eliot Norton, makes a delectable little volume in the Riverside Press Editions of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Mr. Norton supplies also a brief critical introduction and some helpful notes. The limited number of copies can hardly fail to be exceeded by the demand. Brown cloth sides and parchment backing have a fitting archaic simplicity.

The first five out of seven slender little volumes, 'Graded Poetry Readers' (Maynard, Merrill & Co.), commend the enterprise to teachers and parents. The

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editors are Miss Katherine D. Blake and Miss Georgia Alexander, of the East and of the West respectively, whose introduction reveals a right conception and is an earnest of judicious execution. There is, for elder critics, a pleasant catholicity that remembers Lydia Maria Child, Eliza Lee Follen, Hannah Gould, William and Mary Howitt, and Mrs. Hemans, along with Christina Rossetti, R. L. Stevenson, Helen Hunt Jackson, Emily Dickinson, Eugene Field, and J. Whitcomb Riley, and the greatest masters of English verse. Beyond the first two or three numbers or grades, the child can roam at large without much attention to the order. The thinness of the volume will encourage him to peruse it to the end.

Richard Hildreth's 'Japan as It Was and Is,' though written in 1861, has no superior as a summary of European relations with Japan up to the Perry era. It has been neatly reprinted in clear type in Tokio (Sanshusha), even to lithographic reproduction of map and title-page, and edited by K. Murakawa, who has supplemented the original footnotes and enlarged and improved the index. Hildreth's appendices are retained. The especial value of this (second) edition is that, after every Japanese word or name, in text and index (except where the editor has been unable to make identification because of uncouth spelling), the Chinese characters or Japanese *kana* are added. This is calculated to give much pleasure, not only to the Japanese, but to all who enjoy the illuminating Chinese picture-characters, which tell a story to the eye that our types cannot. It is good news to hear that Prof. E. W. Clement is about to issue a revised edition of Hildreth's work, of which Americans may be proud, with a continuation, on the same general principles of historical treatment, to the present time.

Archibald Little, the explorer of inland China and author of 'Through the Yang-tse Gorges,' has issued through the Clarendon Press, Oxford (New York: Henry Frowde), 'The Far East,' which is a geographic and physiographic description of what was once the Chinese world, including Japan. Though not a geographer or geologist by profession, Mr. Little has been worthily associated with the distinguished writers of the Geographical Series, of which this book is one. His long and intimate personal acquaintance with very much of the area of the countries described makes full amends for any lack of expert knowledge. Although old residents in the countries which were once Chinese in culture, but are now so only traditionally, may discern here and there inaccuracies, and what in themselves might be glaring errors if set forth in historical monographs, yet these are not of the sort which affect the author's conclusions or the general accuracy of his description, for he has ever an eye to the great underlying bases and to the visible features of the landscape. The numerous maps, sketches, and diagrams show him to be a man thoroughly familiar with China's drainage basins, river routes, watercourses, and coast contours. Consequently, one who reads this book gains quickly and thoroughly a general idea of the country's possibilities for commerce and human advancement. Of the seventeen chapters, nine are very properly devoted to the three great divisions or river-valleys of China proper—that is, the northern and middle basins and the intermediate provinces. The dependencies are then treated, Mantchuria, Mongolia, Turkestan, and Tibet, and those formerly under Chinese rule, Indo-China and Korea; Siam being the buffer kingdom and Japan the Island Empire. With a full index, this is a first-class work of reference. A little revision, by experts in other countries as familiar each with his own province as is Mr. Little with all China, would have made this work almost perfect.

'The Diary of a Girl in France in 1821' (E. P. Dutton & Co.) was written by one Mary Browne, a young north-country girl, who, with her parents and five brothers and sisters, spent rather less than four months of one summer in the neighborhood of Paris about the time of Napoleon's death. Mary Browne was no Marie Bashkirtseff. Her diary is written in the immature style of a girl of fourteen, gifted with no more than the average intelligence. What makes the book amusing is its frank insularity. Little Miss Browne lived long before it came to be good form in England to appreciate, or at least tolerate, foreign clothes and manners. She would have thought it unpatriotic to admire anything essentially French, and she found everything that the family encountered destestable, from the looks of the women to the bread and butter. The Brownes took a house at Versailles, and the daughters went to a school of which the diary gives a lively and most unflattering description. At last their father, who had left Cumberland in search of a warmer climate, decided that even the weather in France was a fraud, and the Brownes turned their backs on French ignorance, dirt, and bad manners. They had suffered such misery on the crossing from Dover that, in returning, they arranged to charter a whole ship, and sailed from Dieppe. The account of both these passages should be read by those who nowadays complain of the discomforts of a Channel crossing. The diary is copiously illustrated with the writer's original drawings, done with great spirit and an absolute lack of technique. The volume is beautifully got up.

We have no word in English to describe a literary type which is not uncommon and is usually wrongly labelled. This is the semi-dramatic dialogue that aims at a sort of photography, at reproducing the scenes and dialogue of every-day life, without any devices of intrigue, development of character, or dénouement. The Greeks called this type the mime, and the best example in Greek literature is the famous Fifteenth Idyl of Theocritus, which reproduces the chatter of two Sicilian women who go to see the festival of Adonis in Alexandria. Just such a mime is Miss Marguerite Merington's 'Cranford' (Fox, Duffield & Co.), misnamed a "play," and arranged in three acts as a "comedy." Sophron, however, the Sicilian writer of mimes, whom Theocritus, and even Plato, imitated, would have recognized in this adaptation of Mrs. Gaskell's novel three mimes really disconnected, wholly undramatic, not in the least suited to the ordinary stage. He would have called the first "act," "Women drinking tea in a small country town"; the second he would have written rather differently, so as to make either the conjuror's illness, or Lady Glenmire's mésalliance, or the loss of Miss Matty's fortune, the central interest, instead of jumbling them all together, as Miss Merington has done; the third "act" he would have called, "The country teashop," and omitted the irrelevant brother. 'Cranford,' the novel, is, in fact, a perfect storehouse of "mimes" of provincial women, their manners and affectations and petty social prejudices; but to carve a three-act comedy out of it is a *tour de force* which merely exposes its essentially undramatic qualities. We commend the present attempt to the dramatic societies of women's colleges, and we hope that when they perform it they will label it "'Cranford,' a Mime."

There is some information on a great many subjects in G. Woolliscroft Rhead's 'Principles of Design' (London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners), but most of it is so summary as to be of little use, and not all of it is correct, while only about sixteen pages answer at all strictly to the title. Its only conceivable purpose is that which the author rather disclaims, to afford a crib-book for candidates for English Board of Education examinations.

The two latest volumes of reproductions of drawings, in the series published by Newnes, in London, and imported by the Scribners, are devoted to the drawings of Rossetti and Poynter. In taking up modern work, after Dürer and Holbein, there must necessarily be a lowering of tone, but this is particularly noticeable when the modern work is English. Leighton is almost the only Englishman who really drew. Rossetti's amateurishness is painfully evident in the present collection, but, after all, there is more life and beauty in his often feeble work than in the mediocre professionalism of Poynter. The latter artist's work, while relatively correct, is singularly uninspiring, and among the forty-eight drawings by him here reproduced there is only one that is capable of giving a sensitive eye any real pleasure. It would add very much to the usefulness and intelligibility of these volumes if the publishers would put the drawings in something like chronological order. In the Rossetti volume the mixing up of drawings of all periods and widely differing styles is very confusing. In our copy the confusion is aggravated by the omission of two plates and the duplication of two others. In neither of these volumes is the text of any importance. Its appearance is probably a concession to the notion that a book should contain *some* reading matter.

'A Descriptive Handbook of Architecture,' by Martin A. Buckmaster, A.R.C.A., who is "Art Master" at Tonbridge School and is also an examiner in several public positions in England (London: Routledge; New York: Dutton), contains 180 pages, very largely taken up with cuts of different kinds, and with tables of dates and names. As is natural in such a case, nearly half the book is devoted to the architecture of England. The five English chapters come in the middle of the book, after the very brief treatment of Classic Architecture—Greek and Roman building viewed comparatively. What follows still is limited to a chapter on French Gothic, and a final chapter on the Renaissance, in which, again, England, the country in which the Renaissance is less easily traceable than in any land that it reached

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at all, comes to the front, and the illustrations are drawn exclusively from English sources. It is, of course, a grave question how far such a book can be of use to students. Perhaps the title might be changed to something like this: 'English Architecture, with some Allusion to its Affiliations.' Then it might be hoped that the reader would understand that his attention was to be concentrated on chapters v. to x. inclusive, and that he need not look further except for some suggestions. Even in the English chapters, however, there is an unfortunate tendency to insist upon names and dates, to the nearly complete exclusion of guiding principles by which systems of design may be discriminated. This would almost seem, in its innocent inutility, to be a very old volume reshaped with new pictures, including perhaps fifty half-tones of considerable value.

The new volume of the Langham Series of Art Monographs (Scribners) deals with 'Italian Architecture.' It professes to be a "brief account of the principles and progress" of that art, and is illustrated by five half-tones as large as the very small page allows, and a dozen illustrations from rough but expressive drawings. Six chapters treat of the Architecture of Rome, the Basilicas, and the Byzantine, Lombard Romanesque, "Gothic Romanesque," and Renaissance styles. Now when such a problem is set as this, of treating a vast subject in the length of two magazine articles, the need is felt of some special method of treatment; but the thought wanders about through history, social philosophy, principles of construction and theories of design in a way that might lead to clear results with five times the space at the author's disposal, whereas in 20,000 words the thought could be made intelligible only by great compactness and severity of phrasing. The adaptation of a round cupola to a square space which it must roof is called (p. 32) squaring the circle. The Basilican style is assumed to depend upon and to embody the newly introduced springing of the round arches directly from the capitals (p. 21 ff.), although the Christian basilicas which are most highly esteemed have lintels from column to column. The explanation of the Lombard vaulting (p. 55) involves a misconception; and throughout the book there is a searching for poetical analogies where there is really not room enough for the presentation of essential facts. On the whole, we find this book less to the purpose than most of the other volumes of the series.

We have from time to time brought to the notice of our readers the remarkable discoveries of structural refinements in mediæval buildings made by Prof. William H. Goodyear, curator of fine arts in the Brooklyn Museum. The long unsuspected optical refinements of classic buildings have their parallel in the far more obvious, but still longer unobserved or uninterpreted, irregularities of the works of subsequent ages. Thirty-five years ago Professor Goodyear commenced the study of these puzzling phenomena, and has for the last ten years pursued it with singular vigor and success. That he has won his case in favor of the existence of optical and other refinements in many buildings and in a great variety of forms, no unprejudiced person who has taken the trouble to read his papers and examine their lucid illustrations can be found to deny. The study of ancient buildings which Professor Goodyear has carried on from Constantinople, through Greece, Sicily, and Italy to France, has resulted in the making of surveys and of great numbers of photographs, which, presented in the form of enlargements, constitute a collection of the highest interest. Ordinarily to be seen at the Brooklyn Museum, this collection (or at least the better part of it) has been taken to Edinburgh, where, under the auspices of the Edinburgh Architectural Association, it is now being publicly shown. The exhibition is arousing the lively interest of architects and archæologists, and so distinguished an authority on *mediæval architecture* as Mr. Edward S. Prior is about to write a complete account of it for the *Architectural Review*. For the exhibition, Professor Goodyear has prepared an admirable *catalogue raisonnée* of over two hundred pages, illustrated with many reproductions of the plans and photographs, and summing up the results of his many years of labor in a most convincing fashion.

Those who remember the great care which the late William Hamilton Gibson was accustomed to bestow upon even the slightest of his publications, will regret that certain of his rough drafts of orchids, which he doubtless intended to elaborate, have been permitted to see the light in the form given to them in 'Our Native Orchids' (Doubleday, Page & Co.). The title-page states that the descriptive text "has been elaborated from the author's notes," but even the hastiest perusal indicates that the work of elaboration has not been upon lines which Mr. Gibson would have approved. Certainly, Mr. Gibson could never have adopted the nomenclature here given. Careful reading of the text and critical examination of the pictures will convince one that this posthumous publication is decidedly a mistake, unworthy of the artist and author whose name it is made to bear.

'Carnations, Picotees, and the Wild and Garden Pinks,' written by several authorities and edited by E. T. Cook (London: Offices of *Country Life*), falls into the comfortably long list of special treatises in horticulture. The volume is a companion to 'Sweet Violets and Pansies.' It is to be hoped that the plain, practical directions for cultivation will lead many amateurs to brighten their homes with these old-fashioned flowers. The silly custom of bestowing on certain varieties of cultivated plants the names of living persons sometimes leads to amusing results, as shown in the following extract from this volume (it is better to abbreviate the proper names): "Mrs. T. W. L. has improved rather than otherwise with those who grow carnations. Ethel C., . . . from newly imported stock, did not come good at first. . . . Royalty appears to be identical with the above." Carnations and picotees differ mainly in the color of the flowers, the latter being variously dotted.

Copious quotations from Dante, in the original and in translation, sketches of Italian travel, accompanied by historical reminiscence and anecdote, if combined by a man of literary taste, may make a book attractive to the many readers who are always glad to be reminded of Italy—all the more attractive if it be liberally furnished with new and artistic photogravures. Such a compound is 'Dante the Wayfarer,' by Christopher Hare (Charles Scribner's Sons), a handsome, portly volume, full of pleasing views of scenery and buildings, and consisting, in large measure, of extracts from the "Wayfarer" himself. The author is evidently not a profound Dante scholar, but he has read his poet assiduously, and shows unusual skill in selecting passages appropriate to the places described. Such chapters as contain a considerable proportion of Mr. Hare's own composition—"Travel in the Middle Ages," for instance—are interestingly written.

In a small and compact volume of about two hundred pages Dr. George B. Hussey has produced a 'Handbook of Latin Homonyms' (Boston: Sanborn & Co.). He has done pioneer's work, for this is the first systematic treatment of the subject for Latin, and indeed it is one which has been little investigated, except for the French language. The lists in this book are made up from an examination of the works of Cæsar, Nepos, Sallust, Virgil, Horace, Terence, Tacitus, and the orations of Cicero, together with what remains of the first twenty-two books of Livy. Much care has obviously been devoted to its preparation, and it will be found to be of considerable service in settling the puzzling questions of identity which often arise in the richly inflected Latin.

Good Americans, to whom the morning meal is (or should be) the pleasantest of the day, will find decidedly helpful to that end Olive Green's 'What to Have for Breakfast' (Putnams). It is the first of this firm's projected "Home-Maker Series," and augurs well for its five successors. Author and publisher profess ignorance of any other work on this momentous theme, and we join ours to theirs. There is some light introductory gossip about the rationale of breakfast as a light or a hearty meal, the digestibility of certain foods, and the like, followed by directions how to set the table; next come the receipts, and finally the year's menus, day by day. The little book is very pretty.

The place which the public library has taken in our educational system is well indicated in the fifty-third annual report of the Boston Public Library. Of its 201 agencies, delivery stations and places of deposit, 103 are public and parochial schools. Instruction in the use of the Library was given during the year to twenty-one classes from eleven schools, and a comprehensive finding-list of books for boys and girls, the preparation of which has extended over several years, has been published. The usefulness of the Library to the general public has been greatly increased by the placing of nearly 200,000 volumes (including selections from the weekly accessions) permanently on open shelves, available for use by any visitor without formality. Its cosmopolitan character is shown by the fact that 23,847 books in thirty-four different foreign languages were taken out for home reading. Out of a total of 597 works of English prose fiction received for examination by the volunteer fiction committee, 129 were accepted. Among the noteworthy additions are twelve works printed by Benjamin Franklin, and the manuscript collection of the late Charles W. Folsom, formerly the literary director of the University Press at Cambridge, Mass., and consequently in correspondence with many distin-

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guished writers, such as Bryant, Longfellow, Holmes, Sumner, and Ticknor, the issue of whose publications was under his charge. A history of the Library, giving a complete account of its origin and development during the fifty years of its existence, is about to be published.

—The first volume of the 'History of the Collections contained in the Natural History Departments of the British Museum' describes the departments of Botany, Geology, and Mineralogy, as well as the Libraries; a second volume will describe the department of Zoölogy. The collections of Sir Hans Sloane, which the Parliament purchased in 1753, consisted of "coins, ancient and modern antiquities, seals, cameos and intaglios, precious stones, agates, jaspers, vessels of agate and jasper, crystals, mathematical instruments, paintings, and other things." Among the "other things" not particularly mentioned were Sir Hans's extensive collections of natural history specimens, which formed the nucleus of what is now the richest and most important natural-history museum in the world. Soon after the erection of the large circular reading-room in 1857 it became evident that Montague House could not long suffice for the constantly increasing collections, and in 1860 a resolution was carried at a meeting of the Trustees to the effect that it was "expedient that the Natural History Collections should be removed from the British Museum." In 1863, the House of Commons sanctioned the purchase of a site, but it was not until 1873 that the work of erecting a building began, and not until 1880 that this was turned over to the Trustees. The removal of the collections was commenced at once, and in 1881 the new Museum in Cromwell Road was opened to the public. The volume before us is essentially a history of the collections, and describes their growth and development. The description of each department opens with a summary sketch, whereupon follows a chronological account enumerating the principal accessions; lastly comes a list of the most important contributors, from all countries. Each name is followed by a statement of the respective contributions.

—While the bulk of Sir Hans Sloane's library went to make up the Library proper of the British Museum, three works accompanied the natural-history collections, namely, his manuscript catalogue of them, a copy of his own 'Voyage to the Islands Madera, Barbados, and Jamaica,' annotated by himself, with the original drawings of plants from which the accompanying plates were made, and a copy of Ray's 'Historia Plantarum.' Later on, some other volumes belonging to the Sloane collection were turned over to the Department library. Other works were added from time to time, especially manuscripts and drawings, but it was not until 1842 that books were purchased systematically for the Natural History Libraries. At present the library contains considerably over 100,000 volumes. The Botanical department was created in 1827, when Sir Joseph Banks's herbarium, which he had bequeathed to his librarian, Robert Brown, was transferred to the British Museum. To this was then added the Sloane herbarium. At the death of Robert Brown, who was the first Keeper of the department, his herbarium came into the possession of his successor in office, J. J. Bennett, and was kept in the Museum during his lifetime. The collection of Australian plants then became the property of the Museum. The department of Geology includes Palæontology as well, and among the most important accessions of fossils we might mention James Sowerby's collection, containing most of the original British fossils described in his 'Mineral Conchology'; it was acquired in 1860. Very few large collections of minerals have been purchased by the Trustees, on account of the great chances of duplication.

—The severest of all touchstones of mathematical skill is universally acknowledged to be the working out of an exact numerical account of the way our satellite performs its intricate motions—the "theory" of the moon, as the mathematicians still call it, after Ptolemy. Well, inquire, say in Berlin, or in Pulkowa, or Paramatta, or Tacubaya, or in any corner of the earth where high mathematics is cultivated, who in our time has shown the most surpassing mastery of the theory of the moon, and the answer of any competent authority will come unhesitatingly, "It is Mr. G. W. Hill of Nyack Falls, N. Y." Had that village been aware of its renown, it might not have changed its name, alluring as the melody of "West Nyack" no doubt is. But Mr. Hill is the reverse of the kind of man to whom the Sunday *Herald* devotes a page, and it is probable that the villagers know him only as the genial but retiring gentleman who so loves the paternal farm on which he was born and where he still lives. The next most rebarbative problem of celestial mechanics, after the moon's, is perhaps the theory of Jupiter and Saturn (which have to be treated together), and in this Mr. Hill has outdone all other astronomers. But this is as nothing to his achievements in the theory of the moon. For here the method he pursued launched him on an unknown sea, requiring an entirely new chapter to be added to the calculus; and here, by means of the staggering conception of an infinite determinant, he succeeded in the hardy enterprise of virtually solving a differential equation of an infinite order. The boldness of the undertaking consisted in this: that Hill introduced into mathematics a kind of reasoning unrecognized by the mathematicians (albeit they had often unconsciously employed it), namely, the experimental reasoning of physics. For, an infinite determinant being a complete novelty, it was as yet unknown whether the particular type of such a complex series required for Hill's method of solution was convergent or not, or, if it were, whether it possessed the particular kind of convergency that would adapt it to the operations of the calculus. Hill accordingly treated its satisfying this requirement as he would have treated a physical hypothesis, and proceeded to put it to the test of experiment, by calculating, on that theory, the rate of revolution of the axis of the moon's elliptical orbit, which, of all the elements of the solar system, is observationally the one by far the most sensitive to any erroneous assumption about the perturbations. He relied upon the knowledge that if his mathematics were wrong, there was every reason to expect that his calculated motion of the perigee would be sensibly—would be enormously—at variance with observation. It turned out, however, to agree with observation as closely as the results of observation were known. Yet it must be confessed that it is not as clear as the noonday sun that Mr. Hill himself, any more than previous mathematicians, perceived that he was applying Baconian reasoning to mathematics. In any case the brilliant demonstration of Poincaré was needed to enable future astronomers to apply Hill's method with entire confidence to all problems of three bodies. Nevertheless, when we consider that it would, after all, only be to physical questions that such complicated differential equations would ever be applied, Hill's procedure is seen to be of a piece with all the other reasoning that would go along with it, and therefore logically to be beyond criticism.

—By such means our countryman abridged the labor of certain numerical calculations from months to hours, while vastly increasing their exactitude. Mr. Hill's work upon the Moon, originally published over twenty years ago, has since been perfected in some parts and improved in others by an Englishman, Brown. Still, excellent as Brown's work is said to be, the chief merit of the new method confessedly belongs to our neighbor across the river, eighteen miles above High Bridge. Therefore, with a stately quarto, Volume I. of 'The Collected Mathematical Works of George William Hill,' published by the Carnegie Institution, there came to us a visitor too infrequent of late years—we mean the oldtime glow of exultant American feeling. The volume is prefaced with a long and most interesting account of Mr. Hill and his work from the pen (on the whole the most competent and suitable that could have been selected) of M. Henri Poincaré. It is in French, of course; and we find M. Poincaré writing *collège* with an acute accent, a practice which is redolent of Nancy as it was before the war, the Nancy of old Dr. Poincaré. The volume falls but little short of being a handsome one; paper and type are good. There is a pretty good portrait of the man; but in the pose of the head, though it is not foreign to Mr. Hill, we see more of the photographer than of his subject.

OUR IRELAND IN THE PACIFIC.

Our Philippine Problem: A Study of American Colonial Policy. By Henry Parker Willis, Ph.D. Henry Holt & Co. 1905.

Professor Willis recounts our experience in governing the Philippines, with the design of subordinating his narrative to an elucidation of our pending problem in the islands. His competence for treating the subject is based upon special study of available material in this country, and upon first-hand investigation pursued during several months of travel in the archipelago in 1904. He prefaces his work with a history of our occupancy and conquest, so abridged as to furnish only the necessary clue to an understanding of subsequent happenings. Brief as is this historical introduction, it definitely locates the responsibility for our Philippine problem. Despite Mr. McKinley's ringing avowal that, according to the "American code of morals, forcible annexation is criminal aggression," it was by Mr. McKinley's order to Gen. Otis in December, 1898, before even

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the Senate had ratified the treaty of peace with Spain, that the military conquest of the Philippines was begun. Fearful of alienating public opinion, and fearful also of incurring the reproach of inefficiency, "benevolent assimilation" and "pacification" were pronounced *faits accomplis* by the Executive on April 7, 1900; and by an executive order of even date the so-called "civil government," with Judge Taft at its head, was created. The essential character of this Government, its various policies, and the attitude of Congress towards the islands afford the best vantage-ground from which to survey the bulk of Professor Willis's four hundred and fifty pages.

According to him, what is styled the "civil government" is essentially of a politico-military character, and its head, the Governor-General, an autocrat whose decrees the other members of the Philippine Commission register with promptitude and without remonstrance. At the disposal of the Governor-General stand more than ten thousand regular United States troops and five thousand enlisted Filipino scouts now in the pay and service of this country. This is the peace basis of the army establishment in a pacified population about equal to that of New York State. Besides the regular troops, the constabulary or local police number 5,000. The general assembly which is to be convened first in 1906, as a lower legislative chamber to the Commission as an upper house, has been designed as an intentional Rump. Should it negative appropriation measures, the budget of the previous year stands reenacted (p. 45). The judiciary of the islands is described as a pliant and serviceable "political agency," always "bowing the knee to the executive" (p. 102). There is no trial by jury; and, at the instance of the Governor-General (nominally at the instance of the Commission), intractable judges "may be transferred from one judicial district to another" (p. 103). The local government is portrayed as a devitalized and artificial affair. Our form of municipal government—a mayor and council—has been imposed upon the islands despite its novelty and its inappropriateness for districts essentially agricultural with scattered dwellings. The suffrage is so hedged about as to be in the hands of less than 2 per cent. of the population (p. 81). The voters, as might be surmised, are the ultra-conservatives who are naturally most inclined to look with toleration upon American control. Between the municipal or local governments and the central or insular government stand a number of provincial governments. These, as the author shows, are but thinly disguised satrapies, each of which has at its head a board of three. Of this number two are the appointees of the Commission. The civil service of the islands consists of Americans commonly drawing relatively large salaries, and Filipinos, mostly in subordinate positions, drawing relatively low salaries. The glaring disparity in rank and pay is here attested beyond all doubt, but whether it is not the inevitable outcome of a civil service where a knowledge of English, the official language, is indispensable, is hardly given sufficient consideration by Mr. Willis. That his picture of the government's structure is technically correct as to detail is very likely, but the structure of government and the actual workings of government are two different things; and a careful reading of this work suggests the misgiving that the author does not wholly appreciate the extent to which the character and aims of the Governor-General may restrain the potentialities for evil inherent in the abstract political framework. However extreme may have been Gov. Taft's powers, it would strike most people who have followed his career from afar, that he of all men would be least likely to use power tyrannously. The exponent of a mistaken system he may have been, and mistakes he has probably made. But that he had the good of the natives seriously at heart is a cardinal fact clear to common observation. Not to weigh such a fact is to omit a consideration of great moment. On this side, of calculating the personal equation involved, Professor Willis's survey of the situation is defective.

The policies of the civil government have embraced many fields—finance, education, ecclesiastical matters, social customs, sanitation, transportation, and land. To each of these a careful and, apparently, a trustworthy analysis is devoted. From Professor Willis's estimate, it appears that the cost of government in the islands under our rule has vastly increased—he estimates it at fourfold (p. 415). This, however, is only the increased cost to the natives. The annual cost of the islands to this country is not far from $20,000,000. This figure covers the maintenance and transportation of military and naval forces, and the salaries of civil servants "lent" to our colonial administrators. To this annual outlay must be added the liability we incur by our virtual guarantee of Philippine bonds. The increase in taxation imposed upon the natives over the burden borne under Spanish rule is hard to come at. This is partly because the island's financial accounts are not easy to decipher, and partly because the Mexican dollar was the basis of computation until our advent. It is not necessarily an adverse criticism of this work to say that a more lucid comparison of the relative cost of Spanish and American government than the one here afforded is desirable. It appears clear that the provincial governments in particular have failed to keep expenditure within income. The Commission's imposition of a land tax, although restricted to seven-eighths of 1 per cent. of the capital value of land, is especially condemned by Professor Willis on the ground of its novelty and the depressed condition of agriculture. Perhaps no financial disclosure is more significant than this—that on a four-year average, out of an annual outlay of $10,300,000, only $3,000,000 has been expended on internal improvements and education. The remainder has gone for maintaining the courts, constabulary, and civil bureaus (p. 412).

It is disappointing to learn that the school system is so ineffective. It is, as a whole, "wretchedly equipped, miserably housed, and badly officered" (p. 236). The resignations of American teachers "amount to about one-third of the total force each year" (p. 232); and the result of trying to instruct the mass of the native children in English is alleged to be "a piece of great folly" (p. 239), inasmuch as it prevents them from getting a knowledge of the rudiments in any tongue whatever. Apart from preparing a small number for the civil service, the making of English the basis for instruction is very similar, as the author strikingly puts it, to what we might expect if the negroes in our Southern States were taught the common-school branches exclusively in French.

Professor Willis registers an equally adverse verdict upon the Commission's policy in ecclesiastical and social matters. The purchase of the friars' lands—400,000 acres for $7,200,000—and its tender to the natives at cost, is only affording the population an opportunity to buy what "they in many instances regard as their own, at an inflated price" (p. 199). The cognate topic of the Aglipayan, or independent Catholic Church, is treated in full, but its reputed strength, at nearly one-half the total population, makes one query what the author describes as "conservative estimates, made by American observers" (p. 217). There is much to depress the reader in what is recounted of the practically public recognition and regulation of prostitution (p. 257); and as regards opium, the Commission's action, or rather inaction, is disappointing, from both a social and a financial standpoint.

The modest grain of approval which Professor Willis finds himself able to bestow upon the civil government is mainly in connection with public sanitation and the public-land policy. It is true that he finds the Government fatally at fault in that the roads it has built are totally inadequate to the real needs of the country. But the policy of public land grants, whereby the individual is restricted to 16 hectares (about 40 acres), and corporations to 1,024 hectares, meets with the author's approval as "conspicuously wise" (p. 375). Substantial commendation is accorded also to the Government's policy of sanitation. Mr. Willis's discussion of this topic evokes one of the few far-reaching philosophic observations which he affords the reader.

"On the whole," he remarks, in concluding the chapters on Social Conditions (pp. 269, 270), "it is fair to say that, in dealing with the Philippine conditions, Americans have had greatest success where physical conditions requiring the application of better scientific methods have been involved, and least where general social questions involving greater knowledge of and sympathy with the natives have had to be worked out. In this latter respect we have fallen between two stools, neither applying our own codes of social morality and restraint, nor accommodating ourselves to those of the natives. How far this situation will be remedied in the future will depend entirely on the extent to which we are able to apply sympathetic methods of social control, growing out of a deeper insight into native character, and greater respect for native institutions and prejudices."

The administrative failures of the Commission, however, have never shown the same heartless selfishness as is evinced by our Congress in its economic legislation for the unhappy islands: "Three things," as the author points out (p. 271), "were evidently of primary importance at the outset: sufficient markets for native products, cheap transportation for such products, and a sound and simple currency basis for business operations in the islands." It was only the last that Congress gave them. Even the introduction of the gold standard was attained, in Professor Willis's opinion, at unnecessary expense, and was so manipulated as to advance the price of American silver required for striking the new Philip-

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pine coinage. Even if we wholly disallow the author's contentions in this matter—and they do savor of censoriousness—Congressional legislation on the tariff and navigation fully substantiates the finding that "Congress has pursued towards the Philippines a policy of slavish subservience to special American interests" (p. 311). To the crying need for foreign markets Congress responded by enacting the Dingley rates with a 25 per cent. discount on Philippine exports to this country. Congress, moreover, practically struck off the Philippine export duty on hemp sent to the United States. The loss to the Philippine Treasury by this act, up to June 30, 1904, had far exceeded the refunded customs duties collected on our frontier on incoming Philippine goods. To the Philippines' need for cheap transportation the response of Congress was the act of March 8, 1902, which subjects foreign ships coming from the islands to this country to the same tonnage duties as are exacted from foreign vessels coming to our ports from foreign countries. We thus impose on our wards the burden of high freights in order that our carriers, with inadequate transportation facilities by water, may monopolize the carrying trade. Professor Willis does not fail to notice Secretary Taft's denunciation of the avowed intention of Congress to limit all trade between the Philippines and this country after July 1, 1906, to American ships. The net outcome of our legislation has been to do next to nothing for the depressed industrial state of the Filipinos. The recorded increase in imports is traceable to the supplies shipped in for our forces in the islands. The sugar and tobacco industries have declined (p. 292). "The impressions derived from a journey through the Philippine Islands are those which are produced from an inspection of a devastated, demoralized country just emerged from war" (p. 348). Roads and trails "are to-day very much worse than they were in Spanish times" (p. 344). The population is badly housed even "from an Oriental standpoint" (p. 344). Of five thousand business enterprises founded by Americans in the country, not more than one thousand still survive (p. 327).

From such beginnings Professor Willis has seemingly good ground to fear that, in the future, Congress, instead of giving the islands the simple redress that justice would dictate, will attempt to foster exploitation by granting to foreign capital franchises, concessions, guarantees, and subsidies which will further impoverish the patrimony of the natives. The proposed importation of Chinese coolies to afford foreign syndicates a supply of cheap labor is denounced by the author. This is another of the few points where he approves of the judgment of Secretary Taft. Not the least instructive part of this investigation of the Philippine labor question is the proof here given of the capacity of the native Filipino workman (396 sq.). It appears that the average Filipino, while he will not submit to the contumely which the coolie accepts submissively, is amenable to the stimulus of good wages and humane treatment; and that it is by no means impossible to enlist large forces of steady, efficient and intelligent laborers among them.

This comprehensive analysis of the situation gives small promise of a ready solution of our Philippine problem. If it is true, as Professor Willis avers, that all intelligent Filipinos recognize the impossibility of maintaining an independent State "in the face of the sharp conflict for tropical territory now being waged by the principal powers of the world" (p. 188); and if, as here asserted, "our people will hardly countenance the cession or sale of the Philippines to another power" (p. 450), it is hard to see how we could eventually give them independence without continuing thereafter to be incumbered by much the same liability, financial and military, which we now bear. This inability to disburden ourselves may not excuse us from doing justice to the Philippines, but it makes it very much less likely that we shall speedily do them justice. Mr. Randolph's sensible remark that the annexation of the Philippines is not a cross to be borne but a blunder to be retrieved, is likely to prove only half true. As an immediate programme Professor Willis pronounces in favor of a promise of independence to the islands, and "a distinct definition of the time when such independence may be possible" (p. 454). The specific means to that end which he recommends are an enlargement of the scope of local self-government, the abolition of the provincial governments altogether, the reduction of the number and burdensome salaries of American office-holders, and, eventually, vesting the national assembly with the reality of power instead of its semblance.

This work of Professor Willis's will take its place as the authoritative indictment of our Philippine policy to date. It is one which the Imperialist may criticise, or try in part to disannul; but it is one which he cannot afford to ignore or despise.

A GOOD BOOK ON RUSSIA.

Russia under the Great Shadow. By Luigi Villari. With eighty-four illustrations. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: James Pott & Co. 1905.

Mr. Villari's preface is dated May, 1905, and the impressions which the volume itself records are, to an extent which the author does not definitely state, reprints of articles on Russian affairs that appeared in the London *Times*. It was his object, he says, "during many a stay of many months in Russia, . . . to examine the consequences of the war on the internal situation, both economic and political." It is obvious that not "many" stays of "many months" could well be included in the period covered by the recent war. But the impressions recorded are those of an experienced and sympathetic traveller; and for statistics, in the more serious portions, abundant sources were available to him, as to the multitude of recent essayists whom recent events have tempted to evolve deductions of widely varying shades of a general pessimistic hue.

Fairness of mind, an aptness for summing up situations clearly and in graphic terms, are among Mr. Villari's special qualities. Occasionally he errs from an unconsciously preconceived prejudice which his brief study and lack of acquaintance with the language (this he does not attempt to conceal) have been insufficient to remove. For example, in his preface, referring to "the mad policy of indefinite expansion" which "found its logical outcome in the Mantchurian campaign," he says: "Russia—an immense country, rich in natural resources, inhabited by a people who, if primitive and ignorant, have many very fine qualities, strong, capable of the hardest toil, inured to the struggle with nature, brave, intelligent, and religious—has been kept out of the march of progress in a condition of semi-Asiatic barbarism for the sake of impossible schemes of universal dominion." Every word of this is just save the last clause, which implies a deliberate policy of repressing knowledge and general progress. Both just and extremely striking is his concluding comment in this same preface: "It is a profoundly interesting moment in the nation's history in which new forces, new ideas, and new movements are beginning to take shape. But we must not expect to see the results immediately, and to find Russia settling down under a liberal constitution within six months. The English Revolution lasted from 1640 to 1689; that of France from 1789 to 1815—almost to 1871; that of Italy from 1821 to 1870. Russia, too, will probably have to go through a long period of turmoil and unrest before she can find lasting peace."

Even in his sightseeing, Villari contrives to mention the usual things without being hackneyed, and to touch with the proper degree of detail on other less familiar points, like the Narodny Dom, or People's Palace, in St. Petersburg. One of his early remarks is: "St. Petersburg is not purely Russian, and a good deal of the misconception and ignorance of foreigners about Russia is due to their seeing so much of the capital and so little of the rest of the country." This eminently sane remark would have been rounded and complete had he added: "But even in the capital there is far more that is genuinely Russian than the average foreigner is capable of assimilating." He is even discriminating and just towards the much-attacked army; and in describing the schools for small boys, orphans or the children of poor parents, which are attached to certain regiments and teach trades as well as the ordinary branches, he concludes: "These schools are not the only aspect of the educational policy of the Russian Army, for the soldiers themselves are given a certain amount of elementary instruction [the officers have to furnish it], and are taught various handicrafts. . . . The Russian Army has this good point, that race is no bar to advancement (save in the case of Jews, who are not admitted as officers). A Mohammedan from Turkestan has as much chance of attaining the highest rank as any descendant of Rurik."

Our author found that people in St. Petersburg took very little interest in the war, apparently, and that very few outward signs of a great crisis were to be noted. One amusing exception was the drama performed at the popular theatre in the Zoölogical Garden, entitled "The Russo-Japanese War," and constructed on lines to suit both popular taste and prophecy, everything being of the most realistic description. The three specimens of Russian cartoons which illustrate this passage, representing Japan getting money for the war out of John Bull

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and Uncle Sam, and the ghost of Napoleon warning the Japanese strategists of the fate of those who invade Russian territory, are excellent. It may be remarked here that the illustrations not only really illustrate, but are as superior to the ordinary run in choice and characteristic touches as they are numerically.

In the chapter on Moscow the author goes astray through trusting to the stock statements and prevailing assumptions of ill-informed predecessors. As he gets further off the beaten track he becomes more interesting and profitable in his remarks. "Provincial Russia" contains much information which will be new to most readers—for example, as to the activities of the zemstvo (as illustrated by that of Kharkoff), and again the amazing list of subjects which the provincial press in one large town is still forbidden to print, though censorship has been relaxed in the capitals: "Descriptions of love scenes, criticisms on reactionary journals, the mention of trade unions, criticisms of acts of police officials, the mention of the name of Gorky, accounts of the religion of the Japanese, praises of Tolstoy, the word 'bureaucracy,' the names of certain diseases, the enumeration of elementary schools, facts concerning the bad organization of the local hospital and the barracks, criticisms of the articles by Krushevan (the instigator of the Kishineff massacres)." The first-hand information regarding industrial enterprises and conditions which Villari gathered is particularly valuable because of the well-reasoned and digested form in which he presents it to the reader, and the impartiality of his statements. He does not appear to be biassed to favor or denounce. For example, he cites the opinion of one foreigner in charge of an important factory, to the effect that this manager is a great believer in the industrial future of Russia, and convinced that the destiny of the country is to be one of the chief industrial nations in the world; but he takes care to mention that few foreigners whom he met in Russia were as sanguine and optimistic, and immediately afterwards records the remark of this manager to the effect that "the military aspect of modern Russia was . . . the worst, and the one soonest destined to disappear, while the many good qualities, intelligence, and capacity of the people would lead the Empire up to the highest degree of civilization." Again, while admitting that the Russians have done a great deal for civilization in various parts of their Empire, he says: "An ill fate seems to pursue them and prevent them from enjoying to the full the heritage which should be theirs; there is always a certain lack of completeness in what they do, something wanting to crown the edifice, which, to a great extent, stultifies the rest of their achievements"; and he attributes this to the fact that the alien civilization forcibly grafted on the nation by Peter the Great is really foreign to the nature of the masses, and is not yet assimilated. He thinks that the strength and the weakness of Russia lie in the fact that "the form of government tends to confuse colony and mother-country, . . . and were a Constitution to be granted to-morrow, the question of the relative rights of natives of St. Petersburg and natives of Erivan might assume a serious aspect. One can quite well imagine a Russian House of Commons where the representatives of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Odessa, Smolensk, etc., should meet together; but the question of admitting 'honorable members' for Daghestan or Kaketia might well lead to difficulties." It is well to emphasize this point, the justice of which is rarely appreciated by foreigners who seek to regulate the policy of a land unknown to them on general principles of universal suffrage.

On the Jewish problem our author is equally judicious in his remarks. "The causes of the unpopularity of the Jews are various, and economic questions are doubtless largely responsible for it," he says. He illustrates this by an account of the methods of the Jewish grain dealers of Odessa with the peasants, adding: "There can be no doubt that, in spite of their many undesirable qualities, the Russian Jews are absolutely indispensable to the welfare of the country. . . . I have also been told by Christian merchants that the peasant has got so much accustomed to selling to Jews that he will not sell to a Christian, whom he mistrusts"; and he frankly declares that the Christian community has only itself to thank for not having developed greater business aptitude. On the subject of Poland he is just and uncommonly acute and judicious. "The real enemy of the Pole is the German rather than the Russian," he says; "and under normal circumstances Russia could have derived the greatest benefit from her Polish subjects." And he sets forth what is required to conciliate them. But he also says, with equal truth: "We have all been brought up from childhood to sigh over the loss of Polish freedom, but, much as we may reprobate the conduct of the three Powers who participated in an act of unparalleled infamy, we cannot but admit that the misfortunes of Poland are largely due to the Poles themselves. This explains even if it does not in any way excuse the partition of the country." The practical conclusion at which he arrives after full consideration of the situation is: "The union with Russia is indeed an economic necessity for Poland, for by that means alone can its industries find a sufficient outlet. Poland, as I have shown elsewhere, is far too small, and the buying capacity of the peasants is too limited, to absorb the output of the country's industries. Were Poland to be separated from the Empire, customs barriers would at once arise to exclude Polish goods, and the industries of the country would be ruined." As to the political controversy, he concludes: "The weakness of all the Polish revolutionary movements is that great discord between the various groups, who hate each other almost as much as they do the Russians. 'Two Poles, three opinions,' is a popular proverb." And he ventures the suggestion that recent events may, perhaps, tend towards greater unity.

The final chapter, on "The Effect of the War on Russian Public Opinion," is characterized by uncommon modesty, acute observation, and good sense. In summing up the actions and resolutions of the Zemstvoists, for example, he says:

"These proposals, it will be seen, are far more moderate and practical than those of the revolutionary conference, and, in fact, the backward state of Russia suggests the advisability of proceeding cautiously in the matter of reforms, and of not giving the people the strong wine of universal suffrage at once. . . . Recent events tend to show that there is a dangerous agitation going on even among the peasants, although on lines different to those of the towns. To prophesy how the change will be brought about, or what form of government will eventually be adopted, would be rash indeed, for the situation is altering from day to day. But one thing appears fairly clear, that, for the present, no general rising has any chance of success. So long as the troops obey orders (and, in spite of sensational reports to the contrary, there is as yet no evidence that the army is tainted with disloyalty), an open revolt can easily be put down. . . . What type of political organization will result from this chaos of warring elements no one can yet foresee; what form of government is best suited to the Russian nation it were presumptuous for a foreigner to suggest."

Altogether, the book is excellent and highly to be recommended. Unfortunately, it is marred, here and there, by hasty writing and defective proofreading.

The Romance of Savoy: Victor Amadeus II. and his Stuart Bride. By the Marchesa Vitelleschi. E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols., 8vo. 1905.

The Marchesa Vitelleschi has hit upon an interesting subject, and, in spite of obvious shortcomings, she has written an interesting book. The annals of the House of Savoy—that house in comparison with whose ancient lineage the Hohenzollerns are parvenus and the Hanoverians upstarts—has been almost wholly neglected by serious historians in English. At no point is its earlier history more striking than in the reign of Victor Amadeus II., when, through his astuteness, the duchy became a kingdom and the foundations were laid of that Piedmontese ascendency which, after five generations, was to free Italy and unite it under Victor Emanuel II.

Victor Amadeus II., the son of Charles Emanuel and Jeanne de Nemours, was born at Turin, May 14, 1666. His father died in 1675, leaving him under the regency of his mother, a selfish woman, with little ability as a ruler. The youth, however, soon showed force of character, in so far, at least, as stubbornness and rather precocious craftiness indicate character. At the age of eighteen, he took the government into his own hands, and held it firmly for over forty years, and at the same age he married Anna Maria of Orleans, daughter of Henrietta, and granddaughter of Charles I. of England. This union strengthened the ties between Savoy and the Stuarts, and it gave Louis XIV., who was Anna's uncle, family reasons for meddling in the affairs of the duchy.

The Grand Monarque, then at the height of his prestige, did not, however, need other reasons than those of self-interest for planning to absorb Savoy. His troops garrisoned Victor's citadels, and it seemed incredible that the Duke, master of a comparatively small army, should preserve his independence. At first he acquiesced in tutelage, and, when Louis gave an order for the persecution of the Waldenses, Victor joined in carrying it out. He submitted to the King's domination even in personal matters, to such an extent that he abandoned a pleasure trip to Venice when he found that Louis objected. Just as soon as he deemed it safe, he joined the league which Emperor Leopold organized against French aggression, but, being worsted in two campaigns, he made peace, and for a while stood docilely by Louis. But when the

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League got the upper hand, through the genius of Marlborough and Prince Eugene, the Duke shifted sides again without compunction, and in 1706 he repelled a French attack on Turin and defeated the French army on the heights of La Superga. Thenceforward, although the general War of the Spanish Succession dragged on till 1713, he ran no further peril. At the Peace of Utrecht, the allies rewarded him for his services by raising his duchy to a kingdom and by apportioning Sicily as his share of the Spanish spoils. Victor took possession of the island, but in less than a year he returned to the more congenial Turin, and in 1720, by another turn of diplomacy, he received Sardinia in exchange for Sicily, which fell to Austria. From that year till 1860 the official title of the Savoy rulers was King of Sardinia. Thus, when Victor Amadeus II. died, in 1732, he left, instead of a precarious duchy, a kingdom of recognized stability among the minor Powers of Europe, strong in its loyalty to the sovereign, and with its foothold in Italy firmly assured. The Fox of Savoy had in the end outwitted the French Lion. Let us add that Victor by economy more than doubled the revenues of his kingdom.

This outline will give an idea of the political importance of Victor's reign in the development of modern Italy; but this is only a small part of the material provided in Marchesa Vitelleschi's book. She enables us to realize how astonishingly personal was government in Europe two centuries ago. We see feudalism entering on its last stage, so far as the relation of small princes to great potentates was concerned. We see the extravagant part played by marriage—a purely arbitrary tie—in consolidating countries. Victor's oldest daughter, Mary Adelaide, at the age of eleven, was married to the Duke of Burgundy; his second daughter was only fifteen when she was given to Philip V. of Spain. Victor himself was a residuary heir to the Spanish crown, and his wife did not allow her claim to the English throne to be forgotten. Indeed, William III. seems to have regarded this solution of the problem of succession as not impossible, for he went so far as to suggest that one of the Savoy princes be sent to England to be brought up at the English court.

Having the general reader, rather than the historical student, in view, the Marchesa Vitelleschi devotes perhaps half of her work to social, domestic, and ceremonial matters. She describes court life in detail, overlooking no function, be it wedding or funeral, the reception of ambassadors or a ducal progress. The letters of great personages which she quotes, simply prove that great personages were as dull then as they sometimes are now. But such a letter as that in which Louis XIV. describes the little Mary Adelaide—"Everything is as it should be, save the curtsey"—compensates for many platitudes. Details of court life appeal to readers who think that in such superficial matters lies the real romance of history; the chief objection to devoting so much space to them here is that they tend to throw events out of their proper perspective. The author's effort to bring in all that she can about England—in order to interest the English public—is tactful, but it adds another obstacle to a symmetrical narrative. The chapter on Henrietta of Orleans, for instance, although entertaining in itself, has very little excuse for existing.

In short, you must not be captious, but must take what the Marchesa Vitelleschi has to give, if you would enjoy her book. She has no great talent for historical construction, no unfailing instinct in selection, nor even an attractive style; and yet, in spite of these shortcomings, she has been able, thanks to the intrinsic interest of her material, to produce a book worth reading. She leaves a distinct impression of Victor Amadeus II., who was rather a complex character; of the long-suffering Queen Anna, and of the Countess di Verrua, the court beauty and royal mistress: and she sufficiently reconstructs the little world in which they lived. She has been conscientious in collecting her material, not only from printed books, but from private archives, to which she has had access.

In her final chapter, the Marchioness rises to her highest level in telling the tragic story of the King's life. Readers of Browning will remember "King Victor and King Charles" as one of his best dramas; but Browning could hardly enhance the impressiveness of the bare facts. After reigning forty-six years, Victor Amadeus suddenly abdicated in favor of his son, Charles Emanuel, who, with hump on back and goitre at throat, had led a neglected and bitter youth. Victor retired to Chambéry, with his second wife, the Marchesa di Spigno, whom he married just before his abdication. King Charles, well-meaning but weak, was easily managed by his queen, Polyxena, and his minister, Ormea. For a while, the relations between Turin and Chambéry were cordial. Then Victor got the idea that he was being ignored and the kingdom misgoverned. Probably, the Marchesa, who had married him expecting to be Queen, and not to live in pompless oblivion, fanned his wrath. He appeared without warning in Turin, planning to revoke his abdication. King Charles, who still trembled from the dread his father had inspired in him in childhood, knew not what to do, but Ormea, who feared the loss of his own occupation, if not of his head, advised that the only way to avert civil war was to arrest King Victor. Queen Polyxena and the other ministers agreed in this opinion, and, accordingly, without delay, King Victor's apartment was broken into in the middle of the night, and he and the Marchesa were violently separated and hurried to different places of confinement. For months he was guarded almost like a felon; his angry spirit broke, his health failed, and only when he seemed too feeble to be dangerous was the severity of his treatment a little relaxed and his wife permitted to return to him. Six months later he died, Ormea and the Queen having steadily kept King Charles from seeing him. This tragic story the Marchioness Vitelleschi tells in a straightforward fashion, so that the last impression she leaves on the reader is the best.

The Church's Task under the Roman Empire: Four Lectures. By Charles Bigg, D.D. Henry Frowde. 1905.

These lectures, which were delivered at Oxford during the Michaelmas term of last year, bear little resemblance to Dr. Bigg's Bampton Lectures on the Christian Platonists of Alexandria. Less erudite in form and dealing with a much less technical subject, they appeal to all serious people, the untheological as well as ecclesiastics. Their aim is "to sketch in broad outlines the nature of the task which lay before the Church when she set out in obedience to the divine call to evangelize the Græco-Roman world, and the degree in which she was enabled to fulfil that task within the compass of the first five centuries."

It is obvious that a theme of this kind might be treated in a conventional and unprofitable way by a doctor of divinity who was anxious only to score points for the Church. Dr. Bigg, however, is free from the reproach of having been led by professional zeal to turn his subject into a theme for edification. One is not always being told how corrupt was the world and how divinely inspired the Church; but each chapter in the volume is a scholarly examination of some one social or intellectual phase. Under the mature civilization of the Roman Empire, life had become so complicated that it is hard for the historian, writing within brief compass, to give a faithful portraiture of the main conditions. Yet certain things are essential, and Dr. Bigg, by fixing his attention upon education, religion, and morality, is able to establish standards of comparison which will strike no one as having been capriciously chosen.

Speaking broadly, the descriptions here given of ancient life constitute a record of deficiency. It being one aim of the Church to improve the condition of mankind, the apologist, even where he is a fair-minded scholar like Dr. Bigg, can only be content when he has shown how grievous were the failings of classical civilization as they appear in the light of the Christian ideal. At the same time, the Church, with all its successes, did not effect a work of wholesale regeneration, and even failed to escape the contamination of ancient influences. As a single example of the tone adopted by Dr. Bigg towards the contact of pagan and Christian, we may refer to his remarks on rhetoric, the staple subject in Roman education. Following Quintilian, rhetoric has three functions—the laudatory, the deliberative, and the judicial. The fathers of the Church found the art of panegyric debauched by the abject flattery of scholars who had lost all self-respect. Under the Christian régime this laudatory rhetoric is preserved, but finds its natural outlet in the language of worship, although some of the Christian panegyrists, in praising the Christian Emperors, sink quite as low in the scale of fulsome expression as ever their pagan predecessors had done. For the chief type of deliberative eloquence in Christian hands we go to the sermon, and for the best example of the judicial style to the church court, as described in the 'Didascalia,' where speech would be unadorned, since the object was not victory, but justice. Having worked out this parallel with sufficient fulness of detail, Dr. Bigg concludes: "The mind dwells with pleasure on this contrast between the false eloquence and the true. But, after all, it must be confessed that the old heathen taint was never thoroughly purged till the deluge of the Barbarian invasion washed away all but the bare foundations of Roman art."

Here Dr. Bigg's main proposition would

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seem to be that, under the touch of Christianity, much in Roman education which was base or effete became exalted, though he is by no means blind to signs of bad taste or faulty style among the Christians themselves. A still more conspicuous instance of his willingness to bring out what was good in the pre-Christian order is afforded by his attitude towards the worship of Isis and Mithra. In the cult of Isis, he says, "we have a divine humanity, a God who suffers a cruel death out of love for man, and a divinely human wife and mother, Isis the compassionate and merciful, who loves her husband with a love that is stronger than death, yet sets his murderer free, bidding him go and sin no more. In Mithraism, following the exhaustive researches of Cumont, he sees something higher still—or at least more salutary for the individual, since Isis worship made no attempt to provide the scheme of moral discipline which was prescribed for the devotees of Mithra. In this Persian faith there was "an atonement for the sinner, spiritual comfort, and temporal help for the afflicted, a virtuous and strenuous example for the lovers of righteousness."

St. Augustine set an extremely unfortunate example to his successors in the Church when he made his defence of Christianity against paganism embrace a forensic citation of selected passages which were designed to show how depraved the world had been during the days of Roman greatness. From this old and outlawed style of demonstration Dr. Bigg has completely emancipated himself, with the effect that his chapters on ancient thought, life, and religion carry conviction, not merely from the wide and varied knowledge they display, but quite as much from the disinterestedness of their tone. Without letting the Christian disappear wholly in the historian, he takes high ground for his definition of the Church's task, and is careful neither to misrepresent the extent of pagan iniquity nor the degree of Christian accomplishment His principal conclusion is that Christianity, working in the later Roman Empire, did much more for the individual than for the State. "If we turn our eyes," he says, "to the field of public virtue, then it must be acknowledged that the Church produced very little result indeed. The evils which were destroying the body politic went on unchecked, and the process of deterioration was more rapid than ever under the Christian Emperors." In the field of private morality something, indeed much, was wrought, but neither orthodoxy nor private virtue could help a State so decadent as the Roman Empire.

"Only in quite modern times," writes Dr. Biggs as he concludes his admirable series of lectures, "have we begun to understand that there is a still higher conception of Christian duty; that the private virtues cannot flourish without the public, that religion and policy ought to go hand in hand, and that for the old ideal of Church and State we ought to substitute that new ideal of the Church-State which hovered before the minds of Piers Plowman and John Wyclif, but has not yet been realized."

The Wonders of Life: A Popular Study of Biological Philosophy. By Ernst Haeckel Translated by Joseph McCabe. Harper & Bros. 1905. Pp. xii, 485.

The greatest philosophical questions of all time resolve themselves ultimately into the problems of the relation of mind and matter—the "Riddle of the Universe," to use Haeckel's happy phrase. Some five years ago Professor Haeckel, in his ripe old age, formulated anew and in popular form his solution of this riddle, framing his statement in terms of his own radical evolution theory. The enormous popularity of the 'Riddle of the Universe' among general readers with no scientific training, the adverse criticism which it aroused, and, especially, the questions on matters of elementary biology which poured in upon him from the unscientific public, have led the author to prepare this supplementary volume on the miracles (wonders) of life. It falls into four parts: (1.) A Methodological Section, Knowledge of Life, (2.) a Morphological Section, Nature of Life, (3.) a Physiological Section, Functions of Life, and (4) a Genealogical Section, History of Life; the last concluding with philosophical summaries of dualism and monism.

As a treatise on elementary biology, the work is distinctly inferior to many others in the field; but the public does not buy treatises on elementary biology, no matter how well written, by the hundred thousand copies, as it has done in the case of the 'Riddle,' and may very possibly do now. It is therefore as a contribution to popular philosophy that Professor Haeckel's book must be examined. In spite of the many volumes of exposition he has written, we find it difficult to arrive at an exact idea of his philosophy. It is almost universally referred to by his critics as "materialism," and with some appearance of reason, for we are constantly meeting with expressions like the following: "Modern science . . . has not taught us a single fact that points to the existence of an immaterial world. On the contrary, it has shown more and more clearly that the supposed world beyond is a pure fiction." But materialism in the ordinary sense it certainly is not. Haeckel's own term is *hylozoism*, defined as expressing "the fact that all substance has two fundamental attributes; as matter (*hyle*) it occupies space, and as force or energy it is endowed with sensation." He adds in a later chapter: "I am convinced that sensation is, like movement, found in all matter, and this trinity of substance provides the safest basis for modern monism." And again:

"Of the three great monistic systems, materialism lays too narrow a stress on the attribute of matter, and would trace all the phenomena of the universe to the mechanics of the atoms, or to the movements of their ultimate particles. Spiritualism, with equal narrowness, builds on the attribute of energy; it would either explain all phenomena by motor forces or forms of energy (energism), or reduce them to psychic functions, or sensation, or psychic action (panpsychism). Our system of hylonism (or hylozoism) avoids the faults of both extremes, and affirms the identity of the psyche and the physis in the sense of Spinoza and Goethe. It meets the difficulties of the older theory of identity by dividing the attribute of thought (or energy) into two coördinate attributes, sensation (psychoma) and movement (mechanics)."

Haeckel's philosophic scheme is avowedly built on the doctrine of evolution, and his practical recommendations grow directly out of it. What, then, is this theory of evolution? Briefly, it is a universal cosmic process by which all that is has grown out of nebulous beginnings by continuous change, from the simplest inorganic reaction, through more complex mechanisms, lowly forms of life, the power and intelligence of brutes, up finally to man and his noblest mental and moral qualities. With the broad outlines of the scheme naturalists are in pretty general agreement, though as we approach the terminal members of the series views diverge rapidly—or more commonly sink into agnosticism. Few have the positive assurance of our author on the details of the origin of human faculty. His exposition is in the main well supported by scientific evidence. Comparative psychology is bridging the gap between the mind of man and the brutes. As far as the intellect is concerned, we may say the gap is practically closed. The emotional life of man, too, is undoubtedly similar in some of its phases to that of brutes. We have the same love of offspring and mates, and in social animals we see the beginnings of self-sacrifice for the community at large, or true altruism. As human art may have its roots in the pleasure of a bird in the song and plumage of her mate, so human morals may spring from the impulsive devotion of social animals to the communal welfare. The altruistic impulse in primitive man was stronger, but equally blind, and gave rise to fetishism and finally to religion. Intellect began more and more to dominate these primitive impulses and passions until the dawn of the age of reason in our own time, whence we expect to go on triumphantly to the consummation of this golden age. "While occupying ourselves with the ideal world in art and poetry, and cultivating the play of emotion, we persist, nevertheless, in thinking that the real world, the object of science, can be truly known only by experience and pure reason. Truth and poetry are then united in the perfect harmony of monism."

What will be the upshot in practical life of this peaceful settlement of the problem of the relation of intellect and sentiment? First, "our clear modern insight into the regularity and causal character of natural processes, and especially our knowledge of the universal reign of the law of substance [a bit of pure metaphysics] are inconsistent with belief in a personal God, the immortality of the soul, and the freedom of the will." Again, "hence the destruction of abnormal new-born infants—as the Spartans practised it, for instance, in selecting the bravest—cannot rationally be classed as 'murder,' as is done in even modern legal works." "What good does it do to humanity to maintain artificially and rear the thousands of cripples, deaf mutes, idiots, etc., who are born every year?" "Faithful dogs and noble horses, with which we have lived for years and which we love, are rightly put to death and relieved from pain when they fall hopelessly ill in old age. In the same way we have the right, if not the duty, to put an end to the sufferings of our fellow-men." A careful reading of the entire book (and it requires a careful reading on account of the incoherency of the style) seems to show that these repulsive conclusions necessarily follow from the premises as given in our author's theory of evolution, which culminates in pure reason to the exclusion of sentiment and other factors of the higher life.

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How to Collect Books. By John Herbert Slater. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan. 1905.

Books and the House. By A. W. Pollard. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co. 1904.

Mr. Slater's volume contains much sundry and miscellaneous information which undoubtedly will prove interesting and useful to those for whom it is intended, namely, the large number of people who desire to collect books, but who are without special knowledge of or scholarly interest in them as human documents. That the author has the general run of collectors in mind is very evident from the way he speaks of William Blades's 'Biography and Typography of William Caxton' and his introduction to the reprint of the 'Boke of St. Albans,' as being, "from a thoroughly practical point of view, . . . of little use."

It would certainly be unfair to scrutinize a book of this kind too closely on the score of accuracy, but some of the most glaring inadvertencies cannot be ignored. On page 4, for instance, Mr. Slater speaks of Aldus Manutius's catalogue of fourteen Greek books, distributed in five classes, as the prototype of classified bibliographies such as Conrad Gesner's 'Bibliotheca Universalis' (1548) and Savigny's 'Tableaux Accomplis de tous les Arts Libéraux' (1587). On page 84 he mentions Van der Linde's 'Haarlem Legend,' naming not the author, but the translator only, and likewise referring to it in the index under Hessel's name alone. To speak of Hain's 'Repertorium Bibliographicum' and Copinger's Supplement to it as a guide to printing-presses (see p. 122) is not quite correct, though the last volume of Copinger contains such a guide, prepared by Konrad Burger. On page 68 the author speaks of Bagford's collection of title-pages as if Mr. W. Y. Fletcher's paper about Bagford before the Bibliographical Society had never been printed. His opinion that the invention of printing "was no gradual development, but a sudden illumination," is contrary to both documents and logic.

Mr. Slater published some years ago a volume entitled 'Book Collecting: A Guide to Amateurs.' While his present venture is not exactly a new edition of the earlier one, the two have much in common, occasionally word for word. The later is uniform with some similar handbooks on old china, furniture, etc.; it has a large number of photogravure illustrations. The index might have been better.

A more authoritative guide is offered in Mr. Pollard's 'Books in the House,' which has been published in an edition of 500 copies, "designed by and printed under the supervision of Ralph Fletcher Seymour at the press of R. R. Donnelly & Sons Co. in Chicago." It is very tastily made up, with bookish headpieces and ornamented initials for each chapter, and printed in the large black type now so common in "privately printed" books. Here we find the matured opinions of a trained and scholarly lover of books on such subjects as "The Buying of Books," "Inherited Books and their Values," "The Keeping of Books," "The Functions of the Collector," " How to Collect," "The Child's Book-Shelf." In the compass of 83 pages one cannot expect great fulness of detail, but what is here offered is worth much more than the repetition of a great number of facts which have been told many times over in easily accessible volumes; we mean, a few sound principles which collectors would do well to follow if they wish to collect to some purpose. Mr. Pollard does not give much space to manuscripts, incunabula and other things which most people never see, but speaks pointedly about the craze for "collected editions" and other allurements of modern publishers. While by no means disparaging the collecting of books as specimens of printing or illustration, or because one may wish to possess all the editions of all the works of his favorite author, he enters a strong plea for subject-collecting as being, "for collectors who will not allow themselves to pay too heavily in the struggle towards the completeness which can never be attained" (and they are in the majority), "the easiest, the cheapest, and the most obviously rational form the pleasure can take." After all, books should be bought to be read, and collected partly from the pleasure of the hunt. To buy books by the yard is not book collecting, as Mr. Pollard truly remarks. Perhaps his most interesting chapter is the one on "Inherited Books and their Values," with its discussion of the market value of books, especially of dull books having nothing else in their favor but age and rarity.

Mr. Pollard does not seem to have had opportunity to read the proofs himself, or such errors as Frossart for Froissart or Perclas (!) for Purchas would not have been allowed to remain.

France in America, 1497-1763. By Reuben Gold Thwaites. (American Nation Series, vol. vii.) Harpers. 1905. Pp. xxi., 320.

To those familiar with the writings of Parkman, any attempt to tell in condensed form the story of the rise and fall of French power in North America is likely to seem disappointing. The period, at once the most picturesque and the most dramatic in American colonial history, demands, for its adequate understanding, treatment on an extended scale. No one, for example, who has read Parkman's account of the taking of Quebec—admittedly one of the best modern pieces of historical description—can ever feel quite content with anything on the same subject less elaborate or less carefully wrought. The actual accomplishment of France in the New World is to be understood only by a consideration of the ideals which animated the French explorers, traders, and administrators, the romance and adventure of frontier and forest life, and the attrition of a decadent feudalism by contact with savagery on the one hand and English common sense on the other; and these are matters not easily brought out in a small space.

We make this preliminary observation, not to disparage Mr. Thwaites's book, but rather to indicate the peculiar difficulty of his task. Within the limitations imposed upon him, he has certainly done better than any writer who has preceded him, while in easy command and skilful use of material, his volume leaves little to be desired. In the distribution of space, five chapters are given to the planting of New France, the settlement of Acadia and the St. Lawrence valley, the discovery of the Mississippi, and the acquisition of Louisiana and the Illinois country; two chapters to Anglo-French relations to the end of King George's war, in 1748; and one to the life of the people of New France. These eight chapters comprise about half of the volume. The other half, with the exception of a final chapter on Louisiana under Spanish rule, is occupied with an account of the Seven Years' War and the expulsion of the French.

Since it is not possible, in a work of this compass, to make much of an original contribution to the subject, the task of a reviewer is limited mainly to the consideration of questions of balance and proportion and the selection of topics and data. On all matters of Western geography, Mr. Thwaites has long been a recognized authority, and his account of the French explorations is commendably well digested. Particularly praiseworthy are the maps showing the area of exploration and the wide dispersion of military posts. Regarding the economic progress of the French settlements in the Mississippi Valley, the author has also interesting things to say. It will surprise many readers to learn, for example (p. 85), that throughout the first half of the eighteenth century the agricultural products of the Illinois country were shipped in large quantities to Detroit, to Ohio River ports, to New Orleans and Mobile, and from the latter places to the West Indies and Europe; that about 1746, provisions being scarce in New Orleans, the Illinois French sent thither, in one winter, "upward of eight hundred thousand-weight of flour," and that sugar, rice, indigo, cotton, manufactured tobacco, and similar articles flowed into the Western country from Europe and the French colonies, in exchange for the local products.

On the other hand, the chapter on the people of New France is disappointing in its brevity, while the account of French administration is only elementary. Throughout the work, too, the treatment of the religious side of French colonization, particularly the work of the missionary priests, is slight. Mr. Thwaites has, indeed, a word of strong commendation for the Jesuits and the Roman Church (pp. 137, 138), but both the Church and its priests tend to drop to the rear in his narrative. As the text of the volume is about thirty pages shorter than, for example, Greene's 'Provincial America,' it would seem that space might have been found for a fuller account of some of these matters. The latter half of the book, on the Seven Years' War, is naturally fuller than the first half, though here, again, the dramatic episodes in the military operations are unequally developed. There is, for instance, an excellent description of the taking of Louisburg, while that of the final movements before Quebec is cut off with startling brevity. Among the personal judgments we note with satisfaction the commendation of Amherst (p. 265). The unlucky Admiral Byng, however, was certainly not a coward (p. 199), nor can we think that Webb was so excusable for his failure to assist Monro at Fort William Henry as Mr. Thwaites's account would make him appear (p. 210).

Mr. Thwaites's style is, in general, so readable that one can but regret the occasional lapses from good taste, and the extraordinary grammar of the paragraph

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headed "biographies," page 305. "Unavoidable," page 184, line 6, is a curious misprint.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Andersen, Hans Christian. The Ugly Duckling. Moffat, Yard & Co. 75 cents net.
Bacon, Alice Mabel. In the Land of the Gods. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Beautiful Birthday Book, The. Macmillan Co. $2.
Beebe, Katharine. The Home Kindergarten. Akron, O.: Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.
Bolton, Sara K. Famous American Authors. *Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.*
Burroughs, John. Ways of Nature. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.10 net.
Call, Annie Payson. A Man of the World. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 50 cents net.
Darrow, Clarence S. An Eye for an Eye. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.50.
Davidge, Frances. The Game and the Candle. Appleton. $1.50.
Day, Holman F. Squire Phin. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Dippold, George Theodore. A German Grammar. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Ellis, Edward S. Deerfoot in the Forest. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. $1.
Ellis, J. Breckenridge. Stork's Nest. Moffat, Yard & Co. $1.50.
Foster Herbert D., and Sidney B. Fay. A Syllabus of European History. New ed. Hanover, N. H.
Franklin's Writings. Selected by U. Waldo Cutler. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 35 cents.
Gifford, Augusta Hale. Italy: Her People and their Story. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. $1.40 net.
Greenslet, Ferris. James Russell Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50 net.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. XVI. Cambridge, Mass.
Haupt, Paul. The Book of Ecclesiastes. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. 50 cents.
Henry, Arthur. Lodgings in Town. A. S. Barnes & Co. $1.50.
Herbertson, A. J. The Junior Geography. Henry Frowde.
Hewlett, Maurice. The Forest Lovers. Macmillan Co. $3.
Hobbes, John Oliver. The Flute of Pan. Appleton. $1.50.
Howe, Frederic C. The City: The Hope of Democracy. Scribners. $1.50 net.
Howells, William Dean. London Films. Harpers. $2.25 net.
Irwin, Wallace. At the Sign of the Dollar. Fox, Duffield & Co. $1.
Jackson, Gabrielle E. Wee Winkles and Wideawake. Harpers. $1.25.
James, Henry. The Question of Our Speech. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 net.
Ker, W. P. Essays on Mediæval Literature. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Kester, Vaughan. The Fortunes of the Landrays. McClure, Phillips & Co.
King, Henry Churchill. Rational Living. Macmillan Co.
Lefranc, Abel. Les Navigations de Pantagruel. Paris: Henri Leclerc.
Lillibridge, Will. Ben Blair. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Litsey, Edwin Carlile. The Race of the Swift. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.25.
Ludlow, James M. Sir Raoul. Fleming H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Mann, Millicent E. Lady Dear. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Matheson, George. The Representative Men of the New Testament. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50 net.
May, Elizabeth. Flower Babies. Akron, O.: Saalfield Pub. Co. $1.25.
May, John Wilder. The Law of Crimes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.
McSpadden, J. Walker. Stories from Wagner. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 60 cents.
Meader, Herman Lee. Mother Goose Rhymes. Grafton Press.
Medical Directory of New York, New Jersey and Connecticut, 1905. Vol. VII. New York State Medical Association.
Meyer, Hugo Richard. Government Regulation of Railway Rates. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
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